

THE

# LITERARY PANORAMA.

FOR MAY, 1807.

## INVESTIGATION OF THE STATE OF THE POOR.

1. A Treatise on Indigence; exhibiting a general View of the National Resources for Productive Labour; with Propositions for Ameliorating the Condition of the Poor, &c. By P. Colquhoun, Esq. LL.D. 8vo. pp. 320, price 7s. 6d. Hatchard, London, 1806.
2. A new and appropriate System of Education for the Labouring People; elucidated and explained, according to the Plan which has been established for the Religious and Moral Instruction of Male and Female Children admitted into the School No. 19, Orchard Street Westminster, &c. By P. Colquhoun, LL.D. 8vo. pp. 100 price 2s. 6d. Hatchard, London, 1806.
3. A Bill (as amended by the Committee) for promoting and encouraging of Industry amongst the labouring Classes of the Community, and for the Relief and Regulation of the Necessitous and Criminal Poor. [Understood to be the production of Samuel Whitbread, Esq. M. P.]
4. A Letter to Samuel Whitbread, Esq. on his proposed Bill, &c. By the Rev. T. Malthus, A.M. &c. 8vo. pp. 40; price 1s. 6d. Johnson, London, 1807.
5. Remarks upon a Bill, &c. [Mr. Whitbread's Bill] by one of His Majesty's Justices of the Peace. 8vo. pp. 31, price 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. London, 1807.
6. A Letter addressed to Samuel Whitbread, Esq. M. P. in consequence of the unqualified Approbation expressed by him in the House of Common, of Mr. Lancaster's System of Education, &c. By John Bowles, Esq. 8vo. pp. 64, price 2s. Hatchard, London, 1807.
7. A Plan to prevent all Charitable Donations for the benefit of Poor Persons, in the several Parishes of England and Wales, from

VOL. II. [Lit. Pan. May, 1807]

Loss, Embezzlement, Non-Application, Misapplication, Fraud, and Abuse, in future. By William Beckwith, Esq. Royal 8vo. pp. 200, price 7s. 6d. Budd, London, 1807.

We devote this article to the Poor: as men, as Englishmen, and as Christians, no subject can be more interesting to us. Sympathizing, as we do, with every instance of human calamity, and not at all ashamed of manifesting the softer emotions of compassion, though sometimes under a rugged brow; jealous for the honour and the welfare of our country, which with all its faults, not obscurely perceived by us, we dearly love; and avowing an attachment to the principles of Christianity, much beyond that of general profession; we allot to this important subject a considerable portion of our number, and take advantage of several works lately published to exhibit a connected view of the whole in one article. Many have entertained the desire of doing good to the poor, but have failed in the means taken to render it effectual. Nevertheless the desire is commendable; for if no plans are to be suggested till the certainty of their success can be ensured, the calamitous state of the poor is not likely to be amended speedily. On a subject of great interest, importance, and difficulty, candour is peculiarly requisite. Nor should any proposition be treated with contempt or disdain, since it may furnish a hint if not a principle.

Mr. Colquhoun's "Treatise" is a volume not to be perused without great concern; and, indeed, it requires some strength of mind to bear up against the melancholy it is calculated to inspire. That gentleman, from his office as a magistrate, has acquired such a thorough insight into the many and various calamities which afflict the lower class of our popu-

lation, and he states them so forcibly, that nothing but a conviction of the truth of his statements can overcome the reluctance with which we admit them.

Mr. C. distinguishes between *poverty* and *indigence*: taking *poverty* to express that state of life in which an individual has nothing but what he gains by his labour; yet supposing his labour sufficiently productive to supply his wants: whereas *indigence* is that state in which the natural wants of life are not supplied, but the individual, from whatever cause, is induced to accept from others those necessities, the reception of which is an absolute condition of his existence. Poverty, then, is, in fact, the spring of that active principle which we call labour; without poverty there would be no enterprize, no exertion—of course there would be no success, no enjoyment. Poverty, by a benevolent species of necessity, lays its commands on the individual; if those commands be obeyed, the result is comfort; if they be slighted, the result is straitness; if contemned, distress; if wholly neglected, indigence. Industry is a perpetual resistance to poverty; as poverty is vanquished industry triumphs: but if industry fail in its powers, or trip in its struggle, poverty, acting without interval or remission, suffers no failure to escape without detection, nor any trip to pass without punishment.

Nevertheless, poverty, however triumphant, cannot prevent a permanent distinction between those who have resisted, and those who have yielded without resistance. The struggle is honourable, whatever be its termination: and those who, having exerted themselves to the utmost, are eventually delivered captive to indigence, should by no means be confounded with those who have rather invited than repelled their vanquisher, rather facilitated than opposed his approaches.

Our author, accordingly, distinguishes between the innocent causes of indigence and those which are culpable: he distinguishes also causes of a temporary nature from those which are hopeless. Natural imperfections (incurable diseases, old age, &c.), forbid every expectation of rendering the subject of them useful: sudden loss of work, accidentally, yet curable lameness, incidental expences, &c. though severe trials for a time, yet are not beyond

relief, nor are they to be regarded as desperate. The great defect in the attempts of our nation to relieve and regulate the approaches, and the effects of indigence, is, the confounding those who have done their best to repel this enemy with those who have never exerted the faculties which God has given them to any good or valuable purpose. Those who by any mean, innocent or accidental, have sunk under a pressure they were unable to sustain, though all the world might witness their endeavours to sustain it, are doomed to the same ignominy as those who have exhausted the strength of their lungs in complaints, rather than exerted the vigour of their arms in labour, or by misconduct have augmented the weight which crushed them, and then demanded from others a power to support it, or assistance to remove it.

Our nation, ever distinguished for benevolence, has taken on itself so great a proportion of the burden of individuals, that, at length, the rates collected for the support of the poor have arisen to a most astonishing sum. "They exceed the resources of the kingdoms of Denmark and Sweden nearly three-fold: while the general assessments, applicable to all purposes, exceed even the whole revenue of Old Spain, containing *ten millions of people*!!

In some counties, says Mr. C. as in Essex, Kent, and Sussex, the poor rates advanced to 20s. 30s. and even, in some instances, to 40s. in the pound on the rackrent, during the scarcity in 1801. And it became a question with an individual, who had expended in one parish £800, on a house and nursery ground, whether it would not be more for his interest to surrender the whole property to the parish than to pay the assessment.

Nor is this the only evil; for, as the poor consider this right of maintenance as their property, they are sure to demand it soon enough; and the labour which they might perform, did not this disposition supersede it, "would produce considerably more than *four millions* yearly."

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Mr. C. also hints at a deterioration of the race of men among us, observing, that out of nearly 1000 persons ballotted for the militia, brought before him, some time ago, about 25 in 30 were found to be under size.

TABLE, shewing the progressive Rise of the Poor's Rate, Revenue, National Debt, and Commerce, from 1673 to 1803—being 130 Years.

| Years.              | Poor's Rate. | Years.      | Revenue.     | Yrs. | National Debt. | Years. | Custom-house Value of cargoes exported. | Population. |
|---------------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|------|----------------|--------|---|-------------|
| 1673                | £ 840,000    | Average     | £ 1,800,000  | —    | —              | 1663   | £ 2,043,013                             | 5,000,000   |
| 1677                | 608,333      | Reign       | —            | —    | —              | 1669   | —                                       | —           |
| 1677                | 700,000      | Charles II. | —            | —    | —              | 1688   | 4,086,057                               | 5,000,000   |
| 1685                | 665,362      | 1689        | £ 2,001,855  | —    | —              | 1697   | 3,525,907                               | 5,400,000   |
| 1698                | 819,000      | —           | —            | 1690 | £ 664,263      | 1700   | 6,045,432                               | 5,475,000   |
| 1700                | 1,000,000    | 1701        | £ 3,815,285  | 1701 | £ 16,394,702   | 1700   | —                                       | —           |
| Queen Anne's Reign. | 1,000,000    | 1710        | £ 5,691,803  | 1714 | £ 54,145,363   | 1700   | £ 5,913,357                             | 5,240,000   |
| 1751                | 3,000,000    | 1750        | £ 8,523,540  | 1748 | £ 78,293,313   | 1751   | £ 12,500,112                            | 6,467,000   |
| 1776                | 1,720,316    | 1776        | £ 10,265,405 | 1773 | £ 135,943,051  | 1776   | £ 14,755,699                            | 7,600,000   |
| 1783                | —            | 1784        | £ 15,096,112 | 1784 | £ 257,213,043  | 1786   | £ 16,800,725                            | 8,016,000   |
| 1785                | 2,167,749    | 1786        | —            | —    | —              | 1783   | —                                       | —           |
| 1803                | 5,343,205    | 1783        | £ 37,996,088 | 1803 | £ 567,050,606  | 1783   | £ 34,933,000                            | 9,000,000   |

The first seven sums under the column Poor Rates are given on the authority of different writers, and can be considered as nothing more than *estimates*, although from the accuracy of many of the authors, they are supposed to be pretty near the truth. The price of grain was very high in the year 1751. Mr. Alcock, a respectable writer of that period, states, that the whole sum laid out on the poor for four years preceding 1752, amounted, at a medium, to £3,000,000 a year. The last three sums are taken from the Parliamentary Returns.

Thus it appears that the revenue, the national debt, and the commerce of the country, have nearly kept pace with the advance in the rates for the support of the indigent; but these rates have of late years far outstretched the increase of the population; and, indeed, it must be a matter of astonishment to all Europe, how such a population, which (including the increase from 1801 to 1803) can scarcely be supposed to exceed nine millions of people, constantly resident in England and Wales, can support such an establishment.

The following results are extracted from the Parliamentary Abstracts in 1803:—

|   |                  |
|---|------------------|
| Paupers relieved out of work-houses, not including children       | 336,199          |
| Pauper children under five years relieved                         | 120,236          |
| Pauper children from five to 14 years relieved                    | 194,914          |
| Paupers relieved in work-houses, including children               | 315,150          |
|   | 83,468           |
|   | 734,817          |
| Paupers, supposed chiefly to be mendicants, occasionally relieved | 305,899          |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>1,040,716</b> |

While so large a proportion of the people are wholly or partly fed and clothed at the expense of the public, whose labour is totally unproductive to the state, the industry and enterprise of those who support them are certainly beyond all example in the history of the world. With what astonishment would the writers of the 17th and the early part of the 18th centuries, who exclaimed so vehemently against the excessive burdens of the poor, behold the present state of things! The evil is, notwithstanding, as excessive as the means of finding an effectual remedy are difficult.

In contemplating the state of the indigent, there is perhaps more to be dreaded from the increasing depravity of manners than from the great expense incurred in supporting them, enormous as it certainly is,—and rapid as its growth has been within the last fourteen years.

Like the progress of vice and dissipation, it seems to have kept pace with the increase of the wealth and commerce of the country, as will be seen from the preceding table.

It is a generally received observation, that wherever riches are placed in one scale, the apparent good is counterbalanced by an increased quantum of profligacy and crimes in the other: excessive luxury and dissipation—an indulgence in all those gratifications which too often afford a momentary pleasure followed up by permanent pain; holding out exan-

Ules to the thoughtless and inconsiderate to follow courses of extravagance which they cannot support, and producing ultimately the miseries of a prison, the pursuits of a gaming table, or criminal delinquency, as a resource for subsistence.

The force of example works its way through all ranks of society, while in the superabundant circulation of riches, the gains of the low gambler, the swindler, the common prostitute, and the criminal offender, increase as the wealth of the nation is augmenting. It descends even to the lowest classes of society, who indulge in luxuries little known a century ago.

Mr. Colquhoun discusses, at considerable length, the progressive and rapid increase of the poor, and hints at the origin of the poor laws *after* the suppression of monasteries by Henry VIII. We should be glad if some benevolent antiquary would present a view of the state of the poor *previous* to that event. If their numbers were as considerable in proportion to the whole population, as at present, were the Monastical donations equal to the support of so large a body? If not, had those institutions any effect on the quantity of labour offered to the industrious; on the price of land, and its productions,—so that diligence might meet with a more certain and adequate reward? If the great mass of population was then employed in agriculture, has the subsequent enlargement of commerce, by drawing off hands from the plough, and diverting them from their natural occupation, subjected the nation at large to those inconveniences which it feels so severely? Have the manners of life introduced by commerce produced this effect? These, and other questions of no small import, we should be glad to see answered by reference to facts.

In the reign of Elizabeth (1572) the legislature found it necessary to take the subject of a provision for the poor into consideration; and nothing can appear more excellent in theory than the system adopted at that time. But whether this statute required in the execution of it, greater zeal, or greater talents, than characterized those by whom it was to be put in practice; or whether it being committed to officers whose authority and care lasted little, if at all, beyond the time necessary to become acquainted with their duties:—certain it is, that in a few years it

was followed by other statutes; and that early in the succeeding reign, very severe, and even barbarous punishments were appointed for those who solicited alms.

That the civil wars under Charles I. and the unsettled state of the nation under the Commonwealth, were likely to increase mendicity cannot be doubted; but Mr. C. attributes to a false step in the reign of Charles II. (commonly called the Law of Settlements, in his 13th and 14th years) the fatal consequences which have since taken place, the litigation which has ensued, (to the annual expence during the last century, of

|                |        |            |
|----------------|--------|------------|
| Litigations    | 30,000 | £3,000,000 |
| Removals       | 20,000 | 2,000,000  |
| Entertainments | 10,000 | 1,000,000  |
| <hr/>          |        |            |
|                |        | £6,000,000 |

with all those heart-burnings, jealousies, and chicaneries, which have of late years rendered contending parishes scenes of confusion; and have perverted what should be benevolence, into animosity. Neither has this source of charge diminished, for it was in 1776, about £35,000, in 1785, £92,000, in 1803, it was £190,072.— notwithstanding so many decisions had been made by the courts, and so many attempts to settle the law on the subject.

The money drawn from the public under different distinctions, amounts to an enormous sum.

|                       |   |            |
|-----------------------|---|------------|
| Parochial assessments | - | £4,267,065 |
| Bequests, incomes     | - | 400,000    |
| Private charity       | - | 3,332,035  |
| <hr/>                 |   |            |
|                       |   | £8,000,000 |

In estimating the number of persons who are burthens on society, Mr. C. ranks them under the following particulars:—

|                        |   |   |           |
|------------------------|---|---|-----------|
| Indigent persons       | - | - | 1,040,716 |
| Mendicants             | - | - | 50,000    |
| Vagrants, Gypsies, &c. | - | - | 20,000    |
| Idle and immoral       | - | - | 10,000    |
| Depraved Women         | - | - | 100,000   |
| Vagabonds, various     | - | - | 10,000    |
| Lottery Vagrants       | - | - | 10,000    |
| Criminal offenders     | - | - | 80,000    |
| <hr/>                  |   |   | 1,320,716 |

His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for the Home Department, having authorized Mathew Martin, esq. of Westminster to ascertain the state of mendicity in the metro-

polis, he followed up his inquiries for several years with the most meritorious zeal and perseverance, until the end of the year 1802, when his report, which was published in March 1803, disclosed the following interesting facts :—

|  | Adults. | Children. | Total. |
|--|---------|-----------|--------|
| 1. That the mendicants belonging to parishes in the metropolis and its vicinity who solicited alms in the streets, amounted to | 2541    | 4152      | 6693   |
| 2. Vagrants belonging to distant parishes having settlements -   | 1137    | 1467      | 2604   |
| 3. Irish vagrants having no settlements -  | 2037    | 3273      | 5310   |
| 4. Scotch vagrants, idem   | 195     | 309       | 504    |
| 5. Foreign vagrants, id.   | 90      | 87        | 177    |
|  | <hr/>   | <hr/>     | <hr/>  |
|  | 6000    | 9288      | 15,288 |

The expence of these mendicants to the public is about £90,000 per Annum.

The proportion of poor *per county* is

| COUNTIES.  | PER CENT. ON THE POPULATION.  |
|--|-------------------------------|
| 5 { Cumberland, Cornwall, Lancaster, Nottingham, and East Riding of Yorkshire, the number of paupers in each 100 of the population - - - } | 7 (less than $\frac{1}{15}$ ) |
| 3 { In Derby, Middlesex, and Rutland - - - }   | 8 (less than $\frac{1}{10}$ ) |
| 4 { In Lincoln, Northumberland, Stafford, & North Riding of Yorkshire - - - }  | 9 (above $\frac{1}{10}$ )     |
| 4 { West Riding of York, Durham, Monmouth and Salop - - - }  | 10 (above $\frac{1}{10}$ )    |
| 4 { Bedford, Chester, Somerset, and Westmorland - - - }  | 12 (under $\frac{1}{5}$ )     |
| 6 { Cambridge, Devon, Hereford, Huntingdon, Surry, and Worcester - - - }   | 13 (above $\frac{1}{5}$ )     |
| 3 Herts, Dorset, Kent  | 14 (above $\frac{1}{5}$ )     |
| 4 { Gloucester, Leicester, Southampton, and Warwick - - - }  | 15 (above $\frac{1}{5}$ )     |
| 2 { Norfolk, and Northampton - - - }   | 16 (under $\frac{1}{5}$ )     |
| 2 Essex and Suffolk -  | 17 (above $\frac{1}{5}$ )     |
| 1 Buckinghamshire -  | 18 (above $\frac{1}{5}$ )     |
| 1 Oxfordshire - - -  | 20 - - -                      |
| 1 Berkshire - - -  | 21 (above $\frac{1}{5}$ )     |
| 2 Sussex and Wiltshire   | 23 (nearly $\frac{1}{5}$ )    |
| 12 { Counties in Wales, averaging - - - }  | 9 (above $\frac{1}{10}$ )     |

In England and Wales, somewhat less than one ninth part of the population were paupers in 1803.

Workhouses as commonly conducted, are to innocent indigence, *gaols without guilt*, and *punishment without crime*; whereas, to the criminal poor they operate as a kind of premium for vice; since here they find an asylum, whatever has been their conduct. It appears however, that out of 1,040,716 paupers actually relieved throughout the kingdom, only 83,468 could be accommodated in the workhouses.

We are by no means sorry for this, as we believe health, comfort, and morals, are promoted by relieving the poor at their own habitations, rather than crowding them together in places which, from mismanagement, and want of attention, become the very haunts of disease. As to the money earned in workhouses, it does not amount to 4s. per head per annum.

It might well be thought impossible, that in a country like England,—where great works are constantly carrying on; canals are cutting, embankments making, mines exploring; where manufactures are so flourishing, and where the commerce of the country is so extensive, and so many branches of business connected with shipping, require vast numbers of hands,—that such a list could be formed with any appearance of truth.

That our navy should offer an infallible resource for boys and lads, even in time of peace, has been a favourite idea with many ; and that, if the field did not provide them a maintenance, the ocean would, so that none needed to starve, has been a prevailing and general opinion. An appeal to the list now quoted manifests the error of this opinion ; while the fact, that in proportion as our trade has increased, and our wealth has accumulated, our poor with the expences attendant on their support, have increased in more than equal proportion, tends to embarrass whatever reasonings have hitherto been offered on the subject.

We have no need to enlarge on the evils of mendicity; they are unhappily too glaring to need illustration. We turn with respect to every credible proposal for their alleviation and removal, and therefore proceed to state the plans offered by our worthy magistrate for this purpose. His first intention is, the institution of a

"Board of general and internal police;" the functions of which should embrace all the casualties of life, or of a retrograde state of morals, producing indigence, vagrancy, or criminal offences. It should also have an immediate view to the adoption of the best and most effectual measures which intelligence, labour, and investigation, aided by a thorough knowledge of facts, can suggest, for the purpose of increasing the productive labour of the country, encouraging industry, checking idleness and vagrancy, and securing the peaceful subject, as far as circumstances will permit, against the injuries arising from criminal offences. His second proposal is that of a "Police Gazette," to circulate throughout the kingdom; containing abstracts of acts of parliament passed on the subject; essays connected with it; reports which may be of use to the poor, and other particulars: this paper to be free from the stamp duties, having no *news*, and to be sold at a low price. Supposed circulation 75,000 copies. The placing of certain trades (which Mr. C. has found peculiarly liable to abuse) under the commissioners of the board, is a third particular of his plan; to which he adds a general correspondence with other magistrates.

The subject of Friendly Societies follows in Mr. C's order: and he proposes to render them a National institution. Friendly societies have been increasing in Britain from the commencement of the last century to its close, but of late years they have multiplied most rapidly. In 1793 they were first recognized by the legislature, and several regulations were made, calculated to promote their establishment, by giving greater security to their funds. It appears, however, that out of 9672 of these associations, only 5428 have taken advantage of the power of enrolment. As most of these societies are held at public houses, the loss of time as well as money spent, must be added to the cost of their institution. Mr. C. thinks it probable that these expences, with that of officers and other incidents, may amount to ten per cent. on the stock subscribed. He also treats with severity the application which is usually made of the money paid on the death of a member, considering it as condemned to the enrichment of the undertaker, the mercer, and the milliner, rather than, as it should be,

applied to the best advantage by the suffering families.

*A National Deposit Bank* for parochial societies is one of the remedies proposed by Mr. C., and he particularizes the divisions of its plan, its classes, its managers and their functions: with such regulations as appear to be properly connected with the subject.

We confess ourselves partial to whatever proposes to check evil in its earliest stages. Before habit has obtained so much influence as to become incurable; before the body and the mind have become hardened, is the most hopeful time for salutary exertions. Education, then, should begin before the dawn of reason itself opens to observation: and however this may startle some readers as an evident incongruity, yet the fact is, that education does so begin. There is no doubt, but that children soon learn to know persons who caress them: they distinguish very early those who indulge them in compassion to their cryings, from those who continue unaffected by their clamours. Hence they often become hushed in the arms of one parent, while the other finds it impossible to stem the torrent of their noise. Hence we have seen children at the breast eye with very expressive attention the comforting drop in which the ill-advised mother has indulged; and before articulate speech could express its wants, the infant's hands have been stretched out to receive what criminal indulgence has been induced to give. As the mind advances habit strengthens, till, at length, unconscious by what power originally influenced, the course of actions whether good or bad becomes natural; and the individual never suspects that the bias to which he in subjection, is other than a part of his very constitution. The state cannot perform the duty of parents in those early stages of infancy to which we refer; but, if once the general morals of youth could be ameliorated, these, when they became parents, would with pleasure discharge duties, of the importance of which they were convinced. It is, then, of the utmost consequence, that the present generation should be taught, as early as may be, not only for their personal benefit, but for that of their posterity.

In a country where almost every year adds one or more million to the value of manufactures exported to foreign countries, and where

the increase of the sale of labour abroad has more than kept pace with the increase of the population;—where new manufactures are yearly springing up, adding to the existing resources for the employment of the poor; and where the incalculable advantages these nations enjoy over every other, arising from their insular situation, and the skill and capital every where diffused, must ensure the decided preference they have obtained over every country in Europe, there can be little danger of full employment, even to an extended population, reared up in habits of virtue and industry.

It is therefore plain to demonstration, that the permanent power and greatness of the country can be rendered secure in no other manner, than by a jealous attention to the education of the youth of both sexes. It has been already shewn that every thing the nation possesses—the means of existence and all the comforts and luxuries of life, are solely and exclusively derived from five sources of labour, namely, *agriculture, mines, manufactures, fisheries, and commerce*; and that the property annually created arises from labour *alone* invigorated by skill and capital. How important therefore is it, that in rearing these labourers the utmost attention should be bestowed, in not only promoting their own happiness and comfort, but also the interest and security of the state, since they are indispensably necessary as well for its support as for its defence.

Mr. C. proposes for this, also, a Board of Education, to be established in the metropolis, composed of the right reverend the Bishops, and a certain number of laymen holding considerable rank in the state, to be assisted by a secretary and a competent number of clerks and other officers: also Schools in every parish, or district, of England and Wales, each accommodating at least 400 male and 400 female children, residing within a moderate distance.

Such an institution is explained at large in the second number comprised in this article; and the school in Orchard Street may be taken as an instance of Mr. C.'s intention. To this, therefore, we shall now advert. But it is proper that a general view of the state of education among our youth should be previously hinted at. Mr. C. supposes that there are in the metropolis 50,000 children who never obtain the smallest rudiments of education; and that the probable number in the United Kingdom, in the same condition, amounts to 1,750,000. He reasons on the following estimate.

According to the Parliamentary returns in 1803, the population of Great Britain and Ireland may be fairly estimated, at this time, at 15,000,000.

It has been calculated that the children, or infants, from 6 to 13 years of age, requiring education, amount to about one fourth, or 3,750,000

From which is to be deducted one third (or 1,250,000) comprising the children of parents who are in opulent or easy circumstances, and others whose situations in life enable them to allot a portion of their income for education.—Deduct also one fifth (or 750,000) for the children educated at public schools (particularly in Scotland) and also in workhouses, and at charity schools in Great Britain and Ireland, including, in this calculation, the presumed proportion of children, which virtuous parents in the lower ranks of life struggle to educate at their own expence . . . . . 2,000,000

Remains . . . . . 1,750,000

Which, it is much to be feared, grow up to an adult state, and mix in the national population, *without any education at all*, and also without any *useful impressions of religion or morality*. In this point of view it ceases to be a matter of wonder that so many of the lower orders of the community should be *idle and dissolute*, especially when it is considered that many who have even had the advantage of some education, from an inattention to *proper religious and moral instruction*, in ill regulated schools, also become victims to the prevailing vices in vulgar life, and, consequently, become noxious instead of useful members of the body politic.

In the present state of things it is not perhaps too much to say, that every thirty years (the period assigned for a new generation) at least *seven millions* of adults must, in case a remedy is not applied, mingle in the general population of the nation, without any fixed principles of rectitude, and with very little knowledge either of religion or morality. This elucidation, taken in connection with the great increase of population within the last thirty years, in part at least, accounts for the rapid and alarming declension of the morals of the people, and calls aloud for a peculiar degree of attention to the education of the inferior classes of society in every part of the united kingdom.

Education is properly the check of vice; and while this table remains uncontested, we must applaud every attempt to oppose that profligacy, which must needs result from such accumulated ignorance

and depravity. Even if some of those efforts might in our own opinion be conducted with more regularity or discretion, —even if we have been flippant enough to describe “*no* instruction as better than *such* instruction;” yet, after this statement, can we possibly retain that opinion? can we restrain our satisfaction at good of any kind, effected among a body so numerous, a mass so corrupt?

It is now some years since Dr. Bell (then resident at Madras, and Director of the Male Asylum there) observed a Malabar school in which the youth were taught to draw letters in sand;\* by this operation they not only learned the name and pronunciation of the letter, but were prepared to write it with considerable accuracy. Nothing could be cheaper than this mode, since the sand, after having received a variety of forms and figures, was restored to uniformity and smoothness of surface in a moment, and was then ready to receive another course of delineations.

In England, slates and slate pencils answer the purpose of sand and a small stick; and this portable book at once amuses the fancy and engages the understanding.

The number of children taught in this school (or that may be taught) is about 230 boys, 170 girls; in all 400 pupils.

The terms are, for one child, in advance . . . . . per month 1 0  
For two children of the same family . 1 10  
For three children . . . . . 2 6  
For four children . . . . . 3 0

About 130 are children of soldiers; these are taught free of expence. It is supposed that the average, which the education of each pupil costs, is about ten shillings. The number of classes is eight: comprising from the simplest rudiments to reading and writing. The principle adopted is, that of making pupils who are somewhat advanced, teach others not so forward; and the regulations resemble those adopted by Mr. Lancaster. In arithmetic the pupils are arranged in twelve classes. On this article Mr. Lancaster's

\* The custom is general in the east, and it is ancient also; for to this the prophet alludes, Jer. xvii. 13 they that forsake God, shall be *written in the earth*—i. e. soon blotted out: compare John viii. 6, 7. where the same action occurs, which was perfectly understood by those to whom it was addressed. *Rev.*

method is adopted. To these advantages religious and moral instruction is added: and Mr. C. states expressly that

The great and primary object of this institution is, that the pupils, both male and female, should be strongly impressed with a just sense of religion and morality. With this view it is an indispensable rule in the Westminster seminary, that *devotional exercises in strict unison with the established church*, and in a manner suited to the capacity of the youth of both sexes, and to the vices which are likely to assail them, shall be performed in the school, when assembled and dismissed every day; and that those who have been taught shall join in a short and appropriate hymn, or one or more verses of a psalm, suited to the purpose.

It is also required of the master or mistress, when any irreligious, criminal, immoral, or improper act, such as *picking and stealing, unlawfully pawning, swearing, lying, dissimulation, cheating, obscene expressions, rudeness, a disposition to quarrel, cruelty to animals, absence from school without a just cause, disobedience to parents or relations, or others under whose care they are placed*, and all other offences of a bad tendency are discovered, that each offence shall be registered in the *black book*, and dealt with immediately according to the extent of its turpitude or malignity, by a solemn appeal from the master or mistress to the whole school, representing, in language suitable to the comprehension of the children, the shocking consequences which must result to the culprits, &c.

The devotional exercises of the Sunday are strictly enjoined; but we apprehend the following regulation is defective.

It is proposed, after the system is sufficiently perfect, and the major part of the children are further advanced in religious knowledge, that they shall accompany the master and mistress twice a day on Sunday to the established church, and afterwards spend an hour in the school, for the purpose of instruction in religion, and of hearing the observations of the master and mistress on the nature and meaning of the service prescribed for the day, and on the sermons which were preached.

If going to church were a natural propensity of mankind, it might be well enough to suspend the exercise of it till a season apparently more convenient; but, as the habit cannot be formed too early, discretion might, very properly, avail itself of favourable circumstances, to induce an attention to religious exercises, preparatory to religious knowledge. The laws of the school are good.

To the girls are added instructions

To shew them, that a *love of idleness*, finery, and dress, an impatience under restraint in servitude, an indisposition to do their duty as good servants, an instability of temper, which will not permit them to listen to just and proper reproof, or admonition from masters or mistresses, when the duty they are bound to perform is neglected, sends many young women, who thoughtlessly gave up good places, into the streets, and entails upon them misery and wretchedness as long as they live.—To assure them that the moment they forget the good precepts learnt at school, and cease to be *prudent, industrious, careful, and discreet*, that their ruin and misery become certain, &c.

An address to parents expresses similar sentiments.

Let all parents therefore avoid associating or making their innocent infants acquainted with common prostitutes and abandoned and wicked company.—If they wish to be happy and comfortable, let them be sober, virtuous, and industrious: let them spend the Sunday at some place of public worship, instead of debauching their minds in the alehouse, and wasting their earnings, which are allotted for the support of their families. Let the mother of the children do her best to induce the father to love his own home, and his own children, better than the alehouse:—let her always meet him with a smile. Let the house be clean,—the children clean: and let those comforts which are within the reach of every honest industrious man and woman be reserved for the family, which are too often improvidently wasted in the tap room, producing sickness, disease, and misery, merely because they have forgotten religion and virtue—or because they never had it properly impressed on their minds.

Let it never be said that a child shall, with justice, reproach its parents with a neglect of those duties, by which misery instead of comfort and happiness have been the result. Enforce at home the good instruction the children receive at school.

The extraordinary events which, within a few years, have taken place on the continent of Europe,—the important and alarming changes which almost every month, nay, every week, produces, in their nature and consequences surpassing every thing which the history of the world has heretofore recorded, at least since civilization and the arts have been generally disseminated over Europe, exhibit to the calm and reflecting mind a state of things so truly awful, that too much cannot be attempted for the purpose of averting those dreadful calamities by which neighbouring nations have been

visited. The strength and stamina of every country exists principally in the mass of the inferior orders of society; but for the purpose of giving effect to this strength, upon which the existence and prosperity of the state in so great a degree depends, the morals of this useful class should be guarded with the utmost jealousy. Without possessing a strong sense of religion and virtue, it is in vain to hope for industry, subordination, or loyalty. To be useful, the great body of the people must also be discreet, sober, and provident. Where it is otherwise, they become the worst of all nuisances in society. Nothing is more certain than that every immoral act has a bad tendency, since immorality is the root of all political evil. An immoral man can never be a good citizen. Yet, true it is, that we should have little reason to complain of the inferior ranks of the community, if more attention were bestowed to form proper regulations for their support and improvement in society. If we suffer them to be ill educated, and then punish them for those very crimes to which their bad education and miserable condition exposed them, the result is, that by such an oversight we make delinquents, and then punish them.

Mr. Whitbread's Bill endeavours to render the principles stated by Mr Colquhoun of general advantage. Schools such as Mr. C. describes, he would institute every where, for the young. Mr. W. is a friend to Benefit Societies; and would take them under the protection of government. He would establish a national office, in which the poor might deposit their savings, and which should be bound to render such deposits as profitable as possible, to the frugal depositer. Mr. W. would also give a donation to those poor persons who have brought up a number of children without expense to the parish. He also gives to parishes the power of purchasing, or building, tenements, which they may let out to poor persons: at such rents as may, on the whole, be most suitable. As this bill will be divided into three or four bills, and each of them will, we presume, undergo various alterations, we hardly know how to reason on this measure, in its present state.

Already have several *Remarkers* favoured us with their sentiments on this intended law. Mr. Malthus, well known as the author of a work on population, in which he thinks a nation may be too populous for its welfare, has examined some of the *principles* of Mr. W's. bill.

This gentleman is well aware of the difficulties of the subject, and does not pretend to infallibility of opinion. He reasons with coolness and foresight, he cautions against such remedies in some places and things, as would make matters worse in other places and things. Though his work is but slight, yet it is respectable; and by modestly not attempting too much, he leads us to put more confidence in his opinion, than we should have done, had he assumed a tone of greater importance. He is against providing tenements for the poor, lest they should increase too rapidly; and their posterity should manifold augment the present burdens of the country.

The "Remarks" on Mr. W's. bill by a Justice of the Peace, are the work of a practical man, who having seen many local inconveniences in the execution of the present system of laws, fears that the adoption of the proposed regulations would merely exchange these inconveniences for others: would shift them off from the manufacturers, and lay them wholly on the landholders. This gentleman has not investigated *principle*, he has confined his views to *application*. It does not, therefore, follow, that his remarks are nugatory; they are, in our opinion, calculated to excite caution, and by caution to prevent evils of a certain kind and magnitude, though they do not assist in helping us out of our present difficulties, by the substitution of more effectual provisions. This writer justly observes, that a levy of one shilling in the pound, additional, is very different where the rates are now 30s. from what it is where the rates are 3s. He mentions manufactories established in one parish, but their labourers by residing in an adjoining parish, brought on the place of their residence a burden, for which it had no compensation. He hints at the case of fishermen, who not seldom remove from place to place on the coast, and have produced no advantage to any parish. He agrees with Mr. Colquhoun in censuring the number of alehouses.

Several other pamphlets have been addressed to the benevolent projector of this bill: he will, no doubt, profit by their representations.

Mr. Whitbread, in opening his plan to the House of Commons, spoke with great approbation of the system of education proposed and conducted by Mr. Lancaster,

and this was no more than was natural in him, as he has followed the ideas of Mr. Colquhoun, which are confessedly adopted from Mr. Lancaster. But Mr. L. being by religious profession a Quaker, he has omitted that *religious instruction according to the sentiments of the Church of England*, which we have noticed as a conspicuous feature in Mr. Colquhoun's plan. Mr. Bowles has hereupon addressed to Mr. W. a letter containing many valuable remarks; but, whether Mr. W's. short commendation of Mr. Lancaster, deserved a public reprimand of such length, we cannot presume to decide. We shall, however, avail ourselves of some of the information for which we are obliged to this gentleman: what he states concerning Ireland will be read with peculiar interest.

Much uncertainty exists respecting the actual population of Ireland, and the relative numbers of the Protestants and Romanists in that country. All persons, however, agree that the latter constitute an immense majority of that population; a fact which, whether the majority be greater or less, affords, I conceive, a solid foundation for the reasoning which is built upon it in the foregoing pages. It may not be amiss, however, to subjoin to this Tract the result of a communication which I have received from an intelligent friend, resident in Ireland, respecting the state of the population, and the increase of Popery in that country; together with his opinion as to the causes which have led to such increase, and the means by which so great an evil may most effectually be checked. The calculations of my friend are, I understand, founded in a great measure on the publication entitled, "A Statistical and Historical Inquiry into the Progress and Magnitude of the population of Ireland, by Thomas Newenham, Esq."

|   |           |
|---|-----------|
| Population of Ireland in 1731   | 2,010,221 |
| Ditto in 1805   | 5,395,436 |
| Number of Romanists in 1731,<br>according to a return made to<br>the House of Lords | 1,309,768 |
| Number of Protestants at the same<br>period, as per return                          | 700,432   |
| Number of Romanists in 1805   | 4,300,000 |
| Number of Protestants at the<br>same period   | 1,080,000 |
| Increase of Romanists from 1731<br>to 1805  | 2,990,240 |
| Ditto of Protestants during the<br>same interval                                    | 379,548   |

Thus it appears, that in 1731, the Romanists were to the Protestants not quite in the proportion of two to one; and that in

1805 the former were to the latter in the proportion of more than four to one. Secondly, That from 1731 to 1805, the population had more than doubled; that its positive increase during that interval was 3,352,235; and that the increase of the Romanists in comparison with that of the Protestants, has been in the proportion of more than seven to one.

This truly alarming decline of Protestantism is owing to the great exertions of the Popish priests and their agents in making proselytes, and the gross ignorance of the lower orders, which exposes them to be easily perverted; to the zeal with which Popery is encouraged and promoted by all its adherents, who possess any power or influence—while, comparatively, little or no exertion is made on the other side; to the great increase of Popish places of worship in counties and towns, where splendid Chapels are erected, while the Protestant Churches are suffered to fall to decay; and to the want of Protestant schoolmasters, and the abundance of those of the Popish persuasion, who are perpetually perverting the Protestant children.

Elsewhere, Mr. B. thus expresses himself.

Who that remembers what Popery once was, can, in investing it with power, be free from alarm, lest it should hereafter resume somewhat of its former character? In one respect it still retains, even in the country where its pretensions are so high, a quality which is well calculated to excite the apprehensions of every friend of social order. The essential nature of the religion bestows on its priests an ascendancy over the minds of the ignorant and countless multitude, which is subversive of the legitimate authority of government. That ascendancy constitutes what may most properly be termed—*imperium in imperio*. It produces a state of vassalage and dependence, no less hostile to civil freedom, than destructive of the ties which unite subjects to government. It is incompatible with the safety of the state, collectively, and of the individuals who profess the Protestant faith. It even carries with it a power of life and death—for it is supported by the right of excommunication, a sentence which exposes the unhappy victim to perish for want of subsistence, which, in such a case, not a single Romanist can safely, or even conscientiously, bestow.

It is also a most important circumstance, in the case of the Irish Romanists, and should never be lost sight of, in a discussion of their claims, that they consider themselves entitled to a very large portion of the landed property of Ireland, of which they have at different times been deprived by forfeiture, and the right to which, though lawfully vested in other pro-

priests, they consider as descending in their families from generation to generation, in the hope that the time will arrive when it may successfully be asserted.

We come now to the consideration of the pamphlet published by the benevolent Mr. Beckwith.

This gentleman relates, that having had occasion (in his profession as a counsel, we believe) to travel into various of the English counties, he had discovered that many of their charitable foundations were either misapplied, not applied at all, or lost. Highly offended at such perversions and negligences, Mr. Beckwith was induced to make further enquiries; and his opinion is, that although the donations, legacies, &c. allotted by various persons to the support of the poor, may amount in value to £1,000,000 *per annum*, yet that not half this sum is really employed to benefit the indigent.

In compliance with the Act of 1787, directing a return to be made of charitable donations, the annual produce of the money so devoted, was found to be £48,243, the annual produce of the land was, £210,467, making together £258,710; yet this return was not complete, and Mr. Beckwith thinks many particulars were greatly undervalued.

This gentleman, like many others, "goes back to the reformation in our religion, which began in 1530;" but he has not examined into the state of the poor previous to that period. We cannot but wish, that as he has stated the prices of provisions, &c. at that time, he had also noticed the price of labour, &c. &c. In this spirit of research which he has displayed, would have greatly assisted him.

Mr. Beckwith includes in his consideration not only Hospitals and Alms-houses, but Free Schools, gifts for maintaining scholars at the Universities, for purchasing books for donations to the poor; rewards for children who have learned their catechisms, gift sermons, bread, clothing, firing, redemption of captives, marriage donations, to which he adds those for repairs of churches, bridges, highways, &c.

As the latter articles more properly belong to the civil authority of the towns or counties, &c. we shall not notice them; but shall give a specimen of this work from other particulars, which are more properly connected with the subject under discussion.

Mr. Beckwith commences with the magnificent institution of the Hospital of St. Cross, at Winchester; intended by its founder Henry de Blois, Bishop of Winchester, 1132, for the maintenance of 13 poor persons, and for dining 100 persons daily.

At the time I was at this hospital, in the year 1780, I was informed by one of the poor men there, that there were only twelve men and two nurses, as poor belonging to it: nine of them resided in the hospital, and three out; and those who lived there were supplied with what was decent and necessary for their support, and the three out-pensioners were allowed only ten pounds a year each. I was further informed by the same person, that there were given eight hundred penny-loaves on seven days in the year, called dole days; and also bread and beer to poor travellers, as often as they ask for it at the gate. This then comprises the charity of this famous hospital: and after defraying the expense of maintaining the few poor belonging to it; and gifts of bread and beer as mentioned; the repairs of the buildings; salaries to the curate who daily reads prayers to the poor men; steward who collects the rents; and some few other menial officers, as porter, gardener, and barber; the residue of this great endowment comes into the pocket, I suppose, of the master; and this I understand not to be less than £800 per annum.

The Hospital at Sherborne, near Durham, founded *temp. Henry II.* is described as in much the same state. Another at Gretham, founded 1202 by Robert Stitche', the fund for support of which, is the whole manor of Gretham, is supposed to yield £600 per annum *overplus*; after the number stipulated by the donor is provided for, Mr. B. asks, should not this *overplus* be disposed of in charity?

The hospital, Trinity Lane, Worcester, was founded, I understand, by Queen Elizabeth, for twenty-nine poor women; and their allowances, to subsist on, one of them informed me in 1781, was one shilling and threepence per month.

The almshouse at Crewkerne, in Somersetshire, was founded in 1604 by Mathew Chubb and Margaret his wife, for the relief of eight poor people; but the main or principal part of the endowment, as I was informed, was alienated by the surviving seofee, and the money applied to his own purposes; and being thus defrauded, their allowance from two shillings and four-pence, was reduced to threepence a week each.

The hospital at Taunton in the same county, founded in Charles the First's reign, by

Robert Gray, Esq. for ten women and six men, and a reader, making a seventh; the endowment land; and yet they had only two shillings a week each to supply them with the common necessaries of life, as one of them informed me in 1781.

We have already seen the laudable proposals of Mr. Colquhoun and Mr. Whitbread for establishing parish schools: we hope that more effectual care will be taken to render these, should they be instituted, *permanently* useful, than has been manifested in too many instances of Free-schools, which now do not even pretend to disseminate learning of any kind. We are mistaken if we do not know *one* whose revenues are £12,000 per annum: — benefit, as intended by the founder, *NONE*.

At Taunton, in Somersetshire, Richard Fox, Bishop of Winchester (tempore Henry VIII), founded a free grammar school near the Castle Tavern, and endowed the same, (as I was there informed in 1779,) with a small manor near Chard, let out on lives, reserving head rents, amounting annually to between £30 and £40, besides fines on renewals of leases; but what appeared very extraordinary was, that in so large and opulent a town, there should be no scholars at this school, and that the master had converted the school-room into a wood-house.

At Gloucester, near Saint Mary de Cript Church, is a free grammar school, founded and well endowed in Henry the VIIth's reign by John Coke and Joan his wife; but when I was there in 1781, there were no scholars, and the master, who lived in the school-house, I was told, enjoyed the salary of £40 per annum, without teaching a single boy.

At Amersham, Bucks, a free school was founded, and well endowed, by Dr. Robert Chaloner, who was rector of this parish in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, for two masters; the one for teaching grammar, and the other English. When I was at this town, in 1780, I was told, that the head or Latin master, had a salary of £30 a year, and a house to live in, but no scholars to teach, nor had he had any for several years past, but being the curate to the rector, enjoyed the salary, and let his house for £10 a year: so that he had £40 a year for doing nothing as the grammar schoolmaster.

Under the title of *Gifts of money to be lent to traders, for a limited time, &c.* we have an instance of the rise in value of estates *in land*, which well deserves the notice of those who intend making provision for the poor of future ages, as well as the present.

The next benefaction I find recorded, is that of Sir Thomas White, Merchant Taylor, afterwards Sir Thomas White, Knight, Lord Mayor of London, who 34th Henry VIII. gave to the mayor, bailiffs, and commonalty of the city of Coventry, £1,400 to be laid out in the purchase of lands; and who did accordingly lay out £1,378 10s. 6d. of that sum in purchasing lands of Henry VIII. belonging to a dissolved priory situate near Coventry, of the yearly value of £70, subject to a reserved rent of £7 13s. 2d. to the King, his heirs, and successors: but as this charity is well known by various publications, I shall abstain from entering into any details respecting it; contenting myself with remarking, that this estate of £70 per annum, when purchased, was, in the year 1709, inquired into by one of the masters of the Court of Chancery, in consequence of a suit there depending about it, and found to be of the annual value of £48. 13s. 10d.; as appears by the decadal order made by that court, 20th December, 10th George I. What the yearly value may be at this time I know not; but as lands have been advancing ever since the said master's report, the presumption must be (if no fraud has been practised in letting this estate,) that it would produce a much larger income now than it did ninety years ago. I should think it greatly for the interests of the towns of Northampton, Leicester, Nottingham and Warwick, to which towns the surplus of this great charity is given in rotation, to have it inspected by competent judges of its present value. I suggest this, because the surplus being increased, will augment the sum each of the said towns is entitled to in succession, to assist their poor traders with loans of money for a limited number of years, *gratis*, on giving security to repay the same on the expiration thereof, and so to continue to be lent to others in the like manner, in those towns.

Beside this gift, called the Coventry Charity, the said Sir Thomas White, in the year 1566, made provision of £100 a year, to be paid to twenty-four other cities and great towns in rotation, which may be called the Bristol Charity, to be lent out to four traders in those respective cities and towns, for ten years after, *gratis*, on giving sufficient security for repayment of the same, on the expiration of that time, and so to continue to be lent to others, in like manner, for ever.

The cities and towns which have this charity in rotation, are as follow, viz. Bristol, York, Canterbury, Reading, London, Gloucester, Worcester, Exeter, Salisbury, Chester, Norwich, Southampton, Lincoln, Winchester, Oxford, Hereford, Cambridge, Shrewsbury, Lynn, Bath, Derby, Ipswich, Colchester, and Newcastle.

The greatest benefactor by far, of gifts to set the poor to work, I have met with, was

Henry Smith, Esq. citizen and alderman of London, who died in 1627, and was buried at Wandsworth, in Surrey. In his life time he gave £1000 to Croydon, £1000 to Kingston, £1000 to Guildford, £1000 to Dorking, and £1000 to Farnham; and by his last will £1000 to Rygate, to Richmond a specialty debt of £1000, and to Wandsworth, the place of his nativity, £500, to buy lands in perpetuity for relief, and setting the poor people to work in the said several towns.

This work is divided into 31 chapters; each of which has some benevolent purpose for its subject. In another department of our work we have given such a view of this author's plan as will enable our readers to judge of its general principles and provisions. The subject is of great importance to the comfort and enjoyments of many poor persons, as well out of establishments as in them. We are glad to see it brought forward: some public-spirited and benevolent mind may be roused by such remonstrances to urge on the Parliament and the nation, an examination into these memorials of the piety of past ages; and *good must come of it*, sooner or later.

Repeated statements of the *present* condition of such endowments is, necessarily, a previous step to reformation of any avail; since it is not the person who pores over books, with the curious eye of an antiquary, nor he who inspects a building, with the rapid glance of a traveller, that can accomplish a change of such importance, in matters not seldom fixed by custom and precedent; a change too which would be injurious to the present possessor, who merely conforms to the conduct of those who preceded him. Nevertheless, much might be done, without mischief, by looking forward to the proper duties of the next incumbent, and making such terms with him as justice and charity should direct.

The difficulties which accompany the question, as to the best means of relieving the wants of the poor, and at the same time diminishing the burdens of the public, are so perplexing, so obstinate, and so numerous, that we need not wonder if the best and the wisest of men are at a loss in what manner to decide, and to act. The inquiry is less of a theoretical than of a practical nature; and we are not without suspicion, that respectability as to station of life is attended with little

benefit in this investigation. The common feelings of human nature are not seldom superseded by artificial habit, in those who themselves have been the creatures of habit from their earliest days. The rich cannot enter, *ex animo*, into the sentiments of the poor; the instructed, who never knew ignorance, cannot place themselves exactly in the situation of those who are totally void of information: neither will the untutored individual unbosom himself, without reserve, to a man his superior, how much soever such an one may assure him of his friendship. The cunning which usually attends the uninstructed character forbids it. Yet a thorough knowledge of the natural bias of the human mind, in its unsophisticated state, is indispensably necessary, in order to acquire just ideas of what is practicable, in measures of amelioration and reform: for, to lay down such regulations as *will not be followed*, is little better than to propose such as *cannot be adopted*.

*Future* advantages, of any kind, are beheld by the enlightened eye, as if real; but *present* advantages are the only ones to which ignorance attends. Distant security, to a well-informed mind, is no less satisfactory than if it were within his grasp; but those not conversant with the institutions of a well-policed people, think nothing so secure as "a man's own money in a man's own pocket." Waiving, therefore, those beneficial employments of money, which are absolute creations of art; and lowering ourselves down to the level of absolute rusticity, seem to be indispensable pre-requisites for stating and estimating those proposals which the poor will comprehend. To expect from them such calculations as may be perfectly easy to a merchant, or a broker, is to solicit our own deception; and we are mistaken, if the progressive refinement of the times is not at the bottom of those errors which have prevailed on this subject, taken generally.

By way of explaining our ideas, we shall indulge ourselves in a few suppositions.—For instance,

Lands and houses are objects perpetually before the eyes of the poor; and a *natural* desire it is to possess lands and houses. If a peasant, now occupying premises to the value of five pounds *per annum*\*, were told, "if you will pay the churchwarden such a (moderate) sum of

money, you may enjoy your premises for *four* pounds; and on payment of a second sum, for *three* pounds *per annum*," the idea of this benefit is perfectly level to his comprehension; since the fact of paying rent is annually present to his mind. The objects, too, are familiar to him; and he saves up the reward of his exertions, to exchange it, at a proper time, for *his own* premises. Here is no risque; no parting with his *savings* out of his sight; no (to him) *extra* confidence in another person: he requires neither writing nor reading to understand the *rationale* of the business. Whereas, we know, for certain, that many persons, in the country, not to be classed with the absolutely ignorant, comprehend nothing of the nature of the public stocks; *Bank Consols, Reduced, Long and Short Ann.* are heathen Greek to them; and they prefer a mortgage on land within their ken to a *venture* of their cash in the national funds. The desire of possessing property in the funds is not *natural* to any man: the computation of interest is a matter of art, not of simple nature; and distant benefits are of little, very little influence on the sons of poverty. We might reason in the same manner as to the desire of possessing animals, a cow, a pig, &c. this is a *natural* desire, and congenial to the inherent dispositions of man.

Again, if a poor man were told, *after* you have earned so much per week, the churchwarden will give you such assistance as corresponds with the number of your children; but if you have not laboured in the week (sickness excluded), you will receive no additional benevolence, the idea is perfectly understood by the meanest capacity: and, in fact, the greatest and most extensive benefits that were conferred on the poor, in some late severe seasons, were derived from a mode of reasoning congenial with this. It is the course of Providence to his creature man: "God helps those who help themselves." We are, it is true, taught to pray for "our daily bread;" but, we are also told, that "the husbandman must first labour, before he can partake of the fruits;" and "if a man will not work, let him not eat." Those who, under the expectation of receiving an answer to their prayers, should neglect the use of their faculties, and of their strength, would suffer the pangs of craving sto-

machs, and of universal reproach, without compassion. Since then, labour is natural to man, industry is the subject to be rewarded : if labour cannot procure sustenance, let benevolence assist it ; if labour is interrupted by misfortune, let benevolence alleviate the suffering ; but if labour be abandoned, let the culprit be convinced that the *natural consequence* is starvation.

If labour cannot be adequately rewarded in one place, should it be withheld from seeking support in another ? Most certainly not ; and here is felt the evils of *artificial* distinctions of places. Nature knows nothing of parishes ; it has no boundaries, but land and water ; and if the nation generally were in this respect in state of nature, no other boundaries would be necessary. Inasmuch then as, at present, the poor fear to overpass the limits of that *artificial* distinction, a parish, though they might make greater advantage of their labour at some distance from their present residence, no harm could arise from giving them unqualified freedom to use their legs in search of profitable occupation, as well as their arms in performing it. Nevertheless, as things stand among us, it might be prudent to introduce this innovation gradually ; and, at first, it might be sufficient to grant them certificates available within any county adjacent to their own, which would afford them the choice of four counties on an average ; and after they had found employment, and been stationary for a certain time, they should be esteemed inmates in their actual situation.

Mr. Whitbread has proposed that this term should be *five years* ; we confess that we would not have it shorter than the regular period of apprenticeship ; but, as there seems to be a general disposition to reduce this period from seven years to five, we only suggest the hint.

Agriculture and husbandry, are *natural* employments of man ; these should have the preference of labour. Manufactures being *artificial*, can only claim an after attention, when the poor are in question.—Agriculture and husbandry *spread* a population ; manufactures condense it. Which state of life is most productive of vice ? That which is most productive of vice is most productive of public burdens. Man in society *ought* to be more beneficial to his fellow men than when solitary : but, in *great* societies, in numbers wherein an

individual may be concealed from detection, whatever be his character, the principle becomes injurious by excess. Instead of individuals in great cities, &c. encouraging each other in good—what says experience ?

Important as this part of the present subject is, we cannot enlarge on it : yet we *must* hint at a few particulars with which we are acquainted, reserving many more for future discussion.

There remains, then, the consideration of making the poor themselves personally better, as a mean of amending their condition. This, also, is an appeal to facts.

Is it true, that the poor of the Quaker persuasion do not burden our parishes ? and if not, why not ? We believe the answer should be—They are brought up to habits of frugality and industry ; but if misfortune impoverishes an individual, the society assists him. Is it true, that certain sects among other Dissenters maintain their own poor ? that church members among them are rarely found in our hospitals, in our parish workhouses, or begging in our streets ? On what principles do they maintain this honourable distinction ? Is the same true of the Moravians, &c. ? The managers of these societies we suppose, have neither better heads nor hearts than others : what rules then guide their conduct ? It may be justly replied, that small societies are more easily inspected than large ones ; but is not every parish a small society ? If we turn to Scotland, we find somewhat of the same effects produced in that national establishment. That country has not heretofore been so commercial as the south of the Island. Its wants therefore were less *artificial* ; and being more natural, were more easily supplied. Every parish has its poor's list ; donations are gathered every Sunday at the Church doors ; these are usually sufficient ; but if not, a few of the heads of the place unite their contributions ; and though the parish has a power of levying a rate, it is never exercised.

In all these persuasions, what is the disqualifying alternative ? Does a Quaker game ?—does a Dissenter expose himself by drunkenness ?—does a Moravian frequent brothels ? After proof of this, how stands the regard of the society toward him ?—the Quaker is *read out* at a public meeting ;—the Dissenter's brethren *withdraw* themselves from him ;—the Moravian is *expelled* the society. The punishment

of immorality operates as a premium in favour of morality. Now wherever morality can be effectually established, there the poor rates decrease: the man who *does not* lose his money at games of chance, *does* lay it out in necessaries; he who *does not* guzzle it wantonly, *does* employ it in decencies; he who *does not* pay for licentiousness, *does* pay for food and raiment.

The principle of shame also, implanted for noble purposes in the human breast, combines with the sense of loss, and injury, to establish frugality, and general economy among these sects. Frugality is own brother to industry: and where a person is known to be frugal and industrious, the protection and assistance of the society to which he belongs is seldom withheld from him; nor is the respect to which his character entitles him diminished. His feelings are very rarely insulted, if his moral deportment be generally correct.

We are brought then to this, as one result of our reasonings, Almighty God in giving to man Religion, (considered now as the summit of morality) has given that which counterbalances his transit from a state of nature, into that of civilized society; and were this properly enforced on the human heart, the Parliament might greatly diminish its anxiety. Where men are compressed by social institutions, the evils of this state are serious and heavy, unless there be a preponderating power acting for the general benefit; this is Government. But government is not active every where; does not, cannot accompany the individual to his closet; does not, cannot examine the minutiae of his life; does not, cannot controul the principles of his natural appetites; does not, cannot regulate his enjoyments by any fixed standard. Religion actually effects all this, and more:—the inference is obvious, and the inference is all which our space allows us to draw under the present article. The probability is, that the subject will repeatedly engage the attention of our superiors; and that it will be our duty to resume our report on the principles which guide their proceedings.

Among foreign countries, what nation is more respectable than the Swedish, where every individual must read and write? What more profligate than the French? were the *poissardes*, or the *Macceillous*, well educated? well informed?

#### *Campagnes du Maréchal de Schomberg, &c.*

Campaigns of Marshal Schomberg in Portugal, from the year 1662 to 1688, by General Dumouriez, 8vo. pp. 148. Price 7*s.*— Phillips, London, 1807.

General Dumouriez has at several periods visited Portugal, has examined the manners, usages, degree of civilization, and general knowledge, of that interesting country. Led by this, to esteem and value the Portuguese, a nation which has formerly accomplished great undertakings, and has repeatedly shaken off the yoke of its oppressors, he undertakes to address it in the language of truth, and to set before its eyes the brilliant example of a hero, who formerly led its forces to honour and glory. He has for this purpose, selected the history of the Campaigns of M. Schomberg, as presenting those triumphant efforts which are entitled to the honour of being held up as a lesson to the present generation. The history is not without interest, nor without use; but it is more immediately addressed to the patriotism of the Portuguese nation, than to that of others. It may be characterised as an additional instance of Gen. D.'s. enmity to the baneful disturber of the repose of Europe. Vide Panorama, Vol. II. p. 302.

The historical part says Gen. D. is but accessory, which however, presents useful lessons to those Generals who may have the honour to command a Portuguese army. *That* people, in an incessant war of twenty-eight years, manifested all the constancy, all the energy which the love of liberty inspires, and manifested itself to be worthy of ranking among the most respectable of nations. Is it degenerated? *That* its conduct will speedily determine. Is it deaf to the call of patriotism, in the name of which I invoke it? *That* I cannot believe; I cannot but think more highly of it. Brave Portuguese, forgive these uncertainties, and let your regard to your own interests dispel them.

In what circumstances can the Portuguese nation display more opportunely all its energy? Let it shew itself worthy, and determined on freedom; its liberty, and its existence are at stake. The decisive moment is arrived in which it is called on to rouze all its ancient valour; it may depend on the most effectual assistance from Britain, a country which justly appreciates virtue both civil and military; certainly the British only await the national insurrection of Portugal, to make a common cause with her against the tyrant of the world.

*The Panorama of Youth.* By Mary Sterndale. 2 vols. 12mo. J. Carpenter. 1807.

It is the honour of the present age, that literati of both sexes, persons distinguished by their eminent talents in various branches of useful and polite knowledge, have devoted a considerable portion of their labour to the edification of youth: to them we are indebted for those concise systems of geography, of natural and civil history, of morality, of social manners, —for those elegant epistles, dialogues, &c. which have facilitated private education; and have even contributed to enlarge the narrow limits formerly allotted to learning in many of our schools and academies.

Among those female writers who have distinguished themselves by publications for the benefit of their own sex, the modest authoress of the *Panorama of Youth*, is entitled to our cordial approbation. These volumes were honoured with the patronage of the late accomplished Duchess of Devonshire, to whom they were to have been dedicated by permission; — “But she is no more! and the feelings of grateful admiration cannot now be mistaken.” A few private traits of her Grace’s character, are introduced as a tribute to her memory. In the preface, Mrs. Sterndale, with becoming diffidence acknowledges her temerity in presuming to follow the steps of a Barbauld and a Smith. But as the young are ever eager for novelty, she hopes her tales may be acceptable to them, though not characterized by those talents which mark the successful efforts of her predecessors; and that “the pictures in the Juvenile *Panorama*, drawn from real life, by the pencil of an affectionate mother, may be a recommendation to those parents who wish that the early impressions their innocent offspring receive, should be taken from nature.”

The *Panorama* is introduced by the following exordium.

To a good and benevolent heart, this world cannot present a more beautiful sight than a happy and united family: a father who devotes his time and abilities to the interest of his children, and his heart to their happiness; a mother who lives in their comforts and enjoyments, who regulates their duties, directs

\* VOL. II. [Lit. Pan. May 1807.]

their improvements, partakes their sports, and soothes their sorrows; and children, who look up to them with reverence and affection, who listen to their admonitions with respect and obedience, and whose tender love towards each other forms the most perfect finish to the picture of earthly happiness. Such a family was Mrs. Villars’s. Their eldest boy, Alfred, was thirteen; and Eloise a year younger. two other boys, and two younger girls completed the innocent group.

As a reward for good behaviour, the five elder children are represented as surrounding their mother by the fire side, on a winter’s evening, and listening with delight to her little extempore tales, which are prolonged by the various remarks of the children, and by the explanations they require. At another time, the father proposes to bestow his recompence, observing, “that as his happiness depends on the virtues of his children, it is but justice that he should contribute to theirs,” which he proposes to do, by taking them to see a very amusing *Panorama* that is to be exhibited the next day. The elder children naturally desire to know what a *Panorama* is.

A *Panorama*, my dear Henry, said Mr. Villars, is a word derived from the Greek, and means *taking in the whole at one view*. The deceptive art of painting is so managed, that you do not think you are looking at a picture, but beholding a real scene. The situation of this large picture, and the direction of the light, contribute to aid the effect of realising the objects you look upon.

This *Panorama* is not, as Alfred wished it, a view of Lord Nelson’s glorious battle of the Nile; nor, as Eloise expected, a perspective view of London, or Edinburgh: it is a *Panorama of Youth*, every part of the picture has a history attached to it, and it is to be purchased; thus, the father informs them, they will have tales for the whole winter, to be read by their mother to those who are good.

The description of the *Panorama* follows, by this we learn that it is divided into five compartments, each consisting of a landscape with appropriate figures, exhibiting the character and transactions delineated in the five tales which follow; and are the subjects of part I. of the first volume. The titles are, *The Museum. A good Action meets with its Reward. The Cottage, or the Purchase of Pleasure. The Triumph of Fidal Affection; and Jisy of the Pale.*

The second Part, consists of two stories, —*Delia's Birth day*; and, *The Village School, or Sketches of Youthful Life*.

Volume II. contains three tales. *The Sisters. Moorland Mary*; and, *The Voyage of Life*: a beautiful fable.

The general merits of this performance, cannot fail to recommend it. The examples it presents are of social and domestic virtue, in various situations of life, conveyed in a simple style, adapted to the capacities of youth, illustrated by events natural and affecting; and decorated with lively descriptions of rural scenery, in different parts of the kingdom, but particularly in Yorkshire, Derbyshire, and Lancashire. A sketch of one of the tales will convey a competent idea of the whole.

*The Village School.* — On a fair spring morning, in one of the new squares of London, the gay and fashionable were exhibiting their elegant equipages, and more elegant persons, to each other's admiration, as they walked, or drove to the houses of their friends. On one side of the square, a morning concert was held at the house of a nobleman; and on another, a young bride was receiving the congratulations of her friends, on the rank she had just attained. Superb carriages were crowding upon each other; and pleasure and amusement appeared to occupy every mind. — At the door of a genteel, though smaller house than the others, stood a very different carriage from those that attracted the attention of thoughtless gazers — it was a hearse! Its sable decorations were just put in motion, by its driving slowly away, and taking the shortest turn out of the square, scarcely, as it passed, creating one remembrance of its solemn errand amongst the votaries of pleasure, by whom it was surrounded. By feeling hearts, the nobleman and the young bride are forgotten: it is the house of mourning they would visit: and how soothing will be their sympathy! — The widow and daughter of Mr. Sydney, whose beloved remains had just been taken from the house, were enclosed in each other's arms: their grief for the loss of such a husband and father absorbed every recollection of their own destitute state; but when the agony of grief, by an interval of time, had subsided, a deep and settled sorrow took possession of Mrs. Sydney, and seemed to threaten with dissolution that delicate frame, which the watchful ease and tender attentions of her lamented husband had contributed to preserve. The painful reflection that the very means of existence for herself and Julia were buried with him, embittered every hour — Mr. Sydney had possessed an employment under government, at once lucrative and respectable; but, though he had not incurred

any debts, he had lived up to his income, kept gay company, and supported his wife in all the elegance and indolence of a woman of quality; and he spared no expense in the education of his daughter. — Nothing could be more destitute than the widowed situation of Mrs. Sydney; a foreigner in England, she had not one friend whose assistance she could claim, though her acquaintance had paid her due attention of condoling visits, and common-place consolation. — Happily for Julia, she had a mind capable of forming a just and proper estimate of life. She knew, for she had seen, that only the prosperous and independent were received in society, on those terms that could make it desirable: that the possession of wealth, not merit, was the passport in the world; that affluence gained by worthless means, spent contemptibly, or hoarded miserably, would be coveted by those who could slight the man that would rather be nobly poor than meanly rich — that the only distinction made in man by God, was denied the deference that the favorites of fortune received; that talents were neglected, whilst gold was worshipped; and that the world would suffer “the light from heaven” to be put out by the extinguisher of a wealthy fool. With these sentiments she resolved on rural retirement; and a situation that might enable her to attend to, and maintain her helpless mother. All could recommend Miss Sydney eligible situations, but when she spoke of her mother, they were silent. In these circumstances, she was soon convinced that she must rely on herself, and depend on her own abilities. In a few weeks the furniture of her father was sold, the house shut up, and soon occupied by a more fortunate family; and no trace of his widow, or orphan daughter remained.

In the mean time, the virtuous Julia observing an advertisement in the papers, for a village school-mistress in Yorkshire, she instantly answered it, offering herself a candidate. — The terms were limited, but some additional inducements were stated, a comfortable house, and firing free of expense; a liberty to add any number of pupils to those on the establishment: all the necessities of life cheap, and the situation both healthy and pleasant. An ability to teach the first rudiments of education, and a knowledge of those branches of needle-work that are necessary to every female, rendered her competent to undertake it. The rector of the parish was entrusted with the election; and in a conversation with a lady and her daughter, who stopped in the village to repair their carriage which had broke down, he delineates the amiable character of Julia, his prepossession in her favour as soon as he saw her, her reception, and ensuing happy establishment. — The character of this Protector is given in “The Cottage.”

## ORIENTAL LITERATURE.

Those who know what opposition the art of printing formerly experienced among the Turks, and the little patronage it has met with from the learned of that nation, will, no doubt, be gratified with proofs of the activity of the Turkish press, at Scutari. It may rationally be hoped that this institution will prove the means of increasing knowledge among the Orientals; and what effect this knowledge when general may produce in a political, or in a moral view, time only can determine. We confess, that it appears to us to be one step toward the introduction of that light and information which has effected wonders elsewhere, and may augment those wonders by important successes, even in the East.

*Nochbei Wehbi, &c.* Wehbi's Selection.

Scutari, in the year of the Hegira, 1220; pp. 184. 8 Groschen.

THE Turkish method of teaching boys by heart, the most useful words in the Persian and Arabic tongues, by means of glossaries in rhyme, is well known.—Sahidi's Persian-Turkish glossary, and that under the name of *Subhei Sibjan*, an Arabic and Turkish glossary, have hitherto been the most popular among their rhyming vocabularies, in the Turkish schools. Wehbi Effendi, an old man of great merit, yet living, and the best philologist of his time in Constantinople, has completely revised the first of these elementary works, or rather has published a more complete work, of the same description, under the name of *Tohfei Wehbi*: Wehbi's Present.

These works as well as a voluminous commentary upon them, and the *Subhei Sibjan*, have been printed at Scutari. Wehbi Effendi, willing to render the same service in Arabic as he has done in Persian, has composed the *Nochbei Wehbi*, Arabic and Turkish, as a companion to the *Tohfei Wehbi*, which is Persian and Turkish. He has, in reality, in the *Nochbei* as far excelled the *Subhei Sibjan*, as in the *Tohfei* he had excelled the small dictionary of Sahidi. His work contains 100 pages more than the *Subhei Sibjan*. The author (in the preface in verse, after the usual apostrophe, in praise of God

and the Prophet) says, that, excited by the uncommon approbation which the *Tohfei* had experienced, he had spared no pains or labour in his old age to render the *Nochbei* equal in every respect. Persian and Arabic are two very noble languages, and every work which renders the attainment of them more easy must afford substantial reputation. The intimate knowledge of these languages is indispensable to all who lay claim to scientific education, and many of their elegancies are lost without particular attention. The idea of living under the government of so illustrious a sovereign as Sultan Selim, appears to have inflamed his zeal; and he expresses himself in the warmest terms of praise to the reigning Sultan.—The author declares that his attention has chiefly been directed to the elegancies of the language, to words of the most approved use, and that he has extracted the marrow from 120 dictionaries.

*Über die Errichtung einer Zettet und Leihbank, und deren Nützen für die Hannoverschen Lande.* On the Establishment of a Bank for lending and issuing Notes, and the Services which it may render to the Country of Hanover. Hanover. Hahn. 3 Sheets. large 8vo. price 6 Groschen.

"OUR public treasury, says the author, is empty; its credit is exhausted; and a great part of that advantage which the exertions of the industrious brings into it must now be sent out of the country, for a long term of years, to pay the interest of loans made abroad, to satisfy the demands of the enemy. Private persons heretofore in affluence, are impoverished; established commercial houses, hitherto of great credit, have been obliged to suspend their payments, and mercantile credit, which formerly operated very beneficially on the circulation of money, is destroyed."

The author supposes that this evil might be remedied by the establishment of a bank, as above described; but, though such a bank may be a very advantageous institution for a rich and industrious people, of established credit,—is the present situation of Hanover as described by the author, and as it is well known to be;—is the present juncture in which a country is in such a political crisis as that of the

present Electorate of Hanover, such as to promise advantage from an establishment of this nature? A bank can create no credit where none exists previously; established credit must be its foundation. It can originate no trade, or branch of labour, but can only aid active and productive industry: a bank may be proper for rich, flourishing, and commercial countries, but useless to persons or provinces languishing in misery.

*History and Antiquities of Stratford-upon-Avon*; comprising a Description of the Collegiate Church; the Life of Shakespeare, and Copies of several Documents relating to him, and his Family, never before printed; with a Biographical Sketch of other eminent Characters, natives of, or who have resided in Stratford. To which is added, a particular account of the Jubilee celebrated at Stratford, in honour of our immortal bard. By R. B. Wheeler. With 8 engravings. J. Ward, Stratford. Small 8vo. pp. 229. Price 5s. Sold by Longman and Co. London. 1806.

EVERY attempt to improve the topographical history of our country deserves encouragement. There is no spot of the habitable earth so obscure that its history is unworthy of notice, or incapable of use. There is no incident in the life of man so unimportant but that it may furnish instruction. Can any circumstance then be uninteresting which relates to the history of the birth-place of that distinguished bard, who is simple, amidst the gorgeous splendour of the most sonorous and impassioned eloquence,—interesting, even in his narration of the most common and ordinary incidents, and majestic in those unparalleled bursts of language, sentiment, and thought, which at once astonish and delight mankind!

The history of his birth-place requires no adventitious ornaments to attract attention; and cold and callous must be that mind which can contemplate them without emotion.

In this volume, the history of Stratford is traced by means of Leland and Dugdale, from about 300 years before the Norman conquest: including extracts from records, charters, and registers. The extent of the parish, popula-

tion (estimated at present at about 2418), government, including a list of the mayors from 1664, and a short account of the markets and fairs, occupy the first division of the book.

Speaking of the navigation of the Avon which the author remarks, was effected "at a very great expence for vessels of about 40 tons burthen;" he adds,

This source of communication was of immense advantage to the town and circumjacent counties, in conveying all sorts of merchandise from Bristol, Gloucester, Tewksbury, Worcester, &c. into the inland part of this kingdom, returning laden with the natural or artificial produce of the country. Stratford had then the appearance of a small seaport town: at present, however, in consequence of the numerous canals, and the unparalleled improvement of the turnpike roads, the trade by water is much diminished; and it is to be feared, that the commercial intercourse with the Bristol Channel, through the medium of the Avon, will in a short time utterly cease. p. 23. 24.

This is indeed reducing rivers to the purpose for which Brindley the celebrated engineer once told a committee of the House of Commons, he thought them originally created, "to feed canals!"

The account of the parish church and its monumental records, occupies about fourscore pages, while the life of Shakespeare is included in four; being collected from the printed accounts which have been long before the public without one single addition, or emendation. It was not unaptly remarked by a distinguished writer that "here Shakespeare was born, and here he died, and these events formed the whole of the connection between Shakespeare and Stratford. They who look for wild, romantic, or beautiful scenery, as images of the vast conception of this wonderful man, will be disappointed. His impressions were not received from surrounding objects, they were spontaneous productions of nature and original genius!" \*

The documents so attractingly announced in the title page, are, 1st. an old conveyance of land in the parish of Stratford, from Wm. Combe of Warwick, Esq., and John Combe of Olde Stratford, Esq., to Wm. Shakespeare. This

\* Lipscomb's Journey to South Wales, p. 37.

deed was never executed: 2dly. two transcripts of writs issued out of the Borough Court of Stratford, for small debts due to the bard: 3dly. a covenant to levy a fine of the house in which Shakespeare lived, and other property: and 4thly. a conveyance of the same estate to Sir Edward Walker, Kt. Garter principal King at Arms in 1675—sixty-nine years after the death of Shakespeare. Such are the precious relics! They elucidate no point of Shakespeare's life or character, and are equally uninteresting and useless.

Besides this life of Shakespeare there are also biographical sketches of John de Stratford, Archbishop of Canterbury 1273, Robert de Stratford, Bishop of Chichester, his brother; Ralph de Stratford, Bishop of London, their nephew; John Bell, Bishop of Worcester, about 1518; George Carew, Earl of Totness; Dr. Brady, and Mr. Ainge; the last, celebrated on account of his longevity, having attained the uncommon age of 137 years and upwards.

The author's account of the Jubilee in 1789, is interspersed with Garrick's excellent Oration in honour of Shakespeare; his Ode,

“ To what blest genius of the isle,  
Shall gratitude her tribute pay, &c.”

and several other poetical compositions of considerable merit, together with an oration in honour of Shakespeare, written and spoken by Mr. Garrick, which concludes with the following animated sentiments :

To feel the powers of Shakespeare, is at once pleasure and praise; when we express this sensibility, therefore, by an act of homage to his memory, we erect a monument of honour to ourselves, indeed, and to posterity, who may be stimulated to excellence by the hope of fame; all that we nominally offer to the manes of Shakespeare must evidently relate. In these fields where we are pleased with the notion of doing him honour, he is mouldering into dust;—

“ Deaf the prais'd ear, and mute the tuneful tongue!

How awful is the thought!—Let me pause;—if I must speak, it must be in my own character and in yours. We are men; and we know that the hour approaches, with silent but irresistible rapidity, when we shall be sensible only to sickness and to pain, when

we shall perceive the world gradually to fade from our sight; and close our eyes in perpetual darkness.

These truths we know to be indisputable and important, yet they are sometimes forgotten; and stranger still, are sometimes remembered with indifference. Let me, by whom the poet of Avon has so often touched the heart with imaginary woe, be now forgiven, if, unassisted by his language, or his thought, I have tried the force of reality and truth: if at this moment we not only know, but feel, that where Shakespeare is, we shortly shall be, let us preserve the sacred sensibility, which will never imbibter the enjoyments of life, if it effectually reminds us of its use.

The style of the work is correct, the type remarkably neat, and the engravings which appear to have been taken from drawings by the author, are ornamental, and appropriate,

*Dictionnaire Bibliographique choisi du quinzième Siècle, &c.* An Alphabetical description of the most rare and valuable editions of the fifteenth century; preceded by an Historical Essay on the Invention of Printing, and its establishment in the cities, towns, monasteries, and other places of Europe; with lives of the Printers who practised this art, to the year 1500. By M. de la Serna Santander. Brussels, and Paris.

ONLY the first two volumes of this work, are yet published. The first volume contains the historical essay on printing: the second begins the dictionary, and includes the letter G. The essay refutes the pretensions of Haarlem to the origin of printing; which the learned author ascribes to the three persons who are usually honoured as the inventors of that art. Guttenberg, he says, is the real inventor. Schaeffer may partake of his glory, as having perfected the invention; but Faustus (or Fust) who has intruded his name upon those of the two artists, has no other merit than that of having lent money at exorbitant interest to Guttenberg, and having committed to Schaeffer the conduct of the presses, after having wrested them from the real inventor by an unjustifiable law-suit.

This work is in large 8vo. All lovers of literature must earnestly desire its completion.

*Dictionnaire Etymologique des Noms pro-  
pres et Surnoms Grecs et Romains*; par  
F. Noël, Inspecteur Général de l'Instruction  
publique, et Membre de l'Athénée de  
Lyons. Dulau et Co. London.

THIS work has the merit of uniting much information, which is scattered in various places, and volumes: It is the result of considerable labour and enquiry: but we apprehend that the most amusing portion of it is that which we shall now translate for the advantage of our readers.

The twelfth chapter of this instructive and extraordinary work, is on Superstition, it contains some details on *Onomatomancy*, a mode of divining by the letters that compose the name of the person whose destiny you wish to learn; the origin of which science is attributed to Enoch. Joseph had recourse to this method, say the Rabbins, when he foretold the seven years famine in Egypt; and Pythagoras when he formed his wheel of fortune, upon which the letters divided into twelve parts answered to the twelve signs of the Zodiac. The sectaries of Pythagoras were always partial to great names: every letter, said they, has its particular numerical value, a proper estimate of which opens futurity to our view; and they held that we may know the events of a man's life, by calculating the numbers marked in the letters that compose his name. He whose letters being summed up produce the greatest number, must prove the most successful, whether in a battle, a gaming match, or a law suit. Agreeably to these rules, it was clear, that Patroclus, ought to be slain by Hector, and Hector by Achilles, since the name of Patroclus amounted, in numbers, only to 861, that of Hector to 1225, and that of Achilles to 1301.

None can attach to these superstitious calculations less importance than Mr. Noël does, and than Pythagoras himself did; for though that philosopher sacrificed a hundred bullocks to celebrate his famous discovery of the square of the hypotenuse, yet we never read that he made any sacrifice on account of his discovery of this property in proper names. If we try the rule by some historical events, the result agrees with it. In fact, by following the order of the letters of our alphabet, taking A—1, B—2, C—3, D—4, &c., we find that the name of Darius, who was vanquished by Alexander, amounts only to 72; whereas in that of Alexander we find 84. The name of Hannibal amounts but to 50; that of Scipio to 71. It is obvious that at the battle of Actium, Augustus, whose name is 129, should beat Antony, whose name comprises no more than 89. On the

same principle, Charles, whose name reckoned 66, must often beat Peter, whose name tells for no more than 64:—He very wisely (it must be thought,) Frenchified his name on the day of the battle of Pultawa, and Pierre then became equal to 71.

When Turenne and Condé were opposed to one another, whether in civil or foreign wars, the former, whose name enumerated 97, maintained his advantage over his opponent, whose name only amounted to 31. But when Turenne was opposed by Montecuilli, whose superior name gave 142, Turenne's good fortune forsook him, to such a degree, that he was killed at the moment when about to begin a battle. Luxembourg, whose name makes 138, always beat William, who was only equal to 79. Marlborough, reckoning 130, could not fail of beating all the French generals, since Villeroi was but 101; Marsin 74, Tallard 68, and Villars himself, only 92; Villars however, in his turn, beat Eugène whose name did not exceed 57.

If curiosity should incline to amuse itself, by investigating later events on this principle, it may serve as some kind of clew to be reminded, that the name of Sidney Smith reckons as high as 145; so that the cause of Bonaparte's mortifying miscarriage at Acre, is extremely evident, his name comprising only 92. The same number (92) is found in the name of Benningzen, it is therefore to be expected that this general will prove a fair match for the Corsican: his name, at least, is equal; we trust his fortune is superior. We learn also, that the victory at Maida was obtained by a General (Stuart,) whose name comprises the power of 91, while that of his opponent, (Regnier,) who was thoroughly vanquished, includes no more than 76.

So much for the powers of *Onomatomancy*!

*Des Rapports de la Médecine avec la Po-  
litique, &c.* Of the Relations between  
Medicine and Polities. 8vo. pp. 223.  
price 2s. 6d. Dulau et Co.

M. Eusebe Salverte, the author of the present work has introduced many useful ideas, which well deserve the consideration of those on whom it is incumbent to possess and to practice the important science of politics, which, in the true sense of the word, is the science of rendering beneficial to the greatest part of a common-

wealth, every social institution which it comprises, with the moral and physical faculties of man, as an individual, and all the power and inventions of men compacted into a social body.

The daily services which society derives from the medical art, whether in cities, or in camps, in scenes of universal disease, or in the retreats of indigence and misfortune; in short, the connection between medicine and politics have already been treated, by other authors, Mr. Salverte has, therefore, limited his discussion to the investigation of relations that have hitherto been overlooked. He instances, in the influence of climate, and other physical circumstances, on the character of a people; and on the means of turning them to advantage, or improving them; he directs his attention to the moral and personal effects of great undertakings, such as the cultivation of barren lands; also to the customs, and to the diet of a nation; to the removal of inhabitants from one district to another, the crossing of the breed of people by a mixture of different races. The influence of bodily habits acquired by education, occupies a whole chapter. The author insists on the necessity of varying it according to circumstances; he speaks also of penal laws, of houses of correction, and prisons; of punishments, and of public executions.

The chapter in which Mr. Salverte treats of the advantages of physiological knowledge in intercourse with foreign nations, affords him an opportunity of suggesting precautions relative to the site of a colony, and to the health of the inhabitants and of the troops sent thither. The physiological study of the future character of the colonists, the present disposition of the natives, the customs that may be adopted from them, the provisions it would be dangerous to supply them with, and those which on their account may be cultivated and improved in the mother country, are noticed by Mr. S. in their order.

The author expatiates also on the moral and physical effects which may result from the mode of building towns and houses: that of the costume and the ceremonial; that arising from the choice of foods, and that dependent on the distribution of time, into periods of labour, of rest, of repast, and of amusement. He speaks strongly of the power of the scene.

What he has introduced respecting the emotions which the aspect of a numerous assembly must infallibly create in an individual brought before a full tribunal, deserves being read and meditated upon. He here has introduced, very happily, the anecdote of a British peer, who in the House of Lords, was so agitated while recommending a bill for allowing counsel to persons accused of high treason, that he actually could not go on

with his speech.—“ My Lords,” said he, when recovered from his agitation, “ if I, who am not accused at all, and who plead in behalf of interests not my own, have not been able to repel an emotion of tremor, and apprehension, when addressing my peers, what may not happen to a man, brought before his judges to plead in defence of his life or character ? ”

“ Civilians,” continues Mr. Salverte, have hinted at the perturbation of a person accused as being the strongest presumption of his guilt; this rule has been adopted in practice by many judges, and an almost general prejudice has established it. But, independently of the apprehension of this error, from which no tribunal is exempt, independently of the agitation which a painful situation cannot but create in the human mind; can a man who for the first time of his life perhaps, is brought into public view, and who would feel himself intimidated were he to decide in the capacity of a judge,—can he be calm and unaffected when he is to answer as a culprit? when every surrounding object is calculated to inspire him with inquietude and alarm, when no comforting voice invites him to be composed, when his only expectation rests on his innocence, innocence so frequently misjudged by men! Is it to be wondered at that his voice fails him, that he falters in his speech, that he grows pale, that he shudders, that he looks around but without seeing, that he listens and hears without comprehending, that, in the unsteadiness of his discourse, he manifests a suspension of reason, of memory, of ideas? No, certainly; and it becomes the duty of the philosopher who studies man in men; it belongs to the physiologist who laments his inability to remove such fatal agitation, to check at least our unjust precipitation, to demonstrate in this timidity which at once clogs the moral and physical powers, the inevitable effect produced by the presence of an assembly; an effect which is only overcome by the most resolute after long habit, or by exercising a command almost miraculous over his own imagination.”

Mr. Salverte might have added, that the records of courts of justice but too frequently evince that the most atrocious and obdurate offenders know how to retain all their *sang-froid* before their judges, while the most innocent, on the contrary are the most liable to appear discomposed and dejected.

The dominion of the imagination over the bodily frame, and its reaction on

moral conduct produces the most singular effects. It occasions diseases; or it expells them; it inflames to intrepidity, or it discourages to cowardice; it is directed by quacks and impostors, unhappily, very unhappily, for the public, to a variety of criminal purposes. It is the duty of a physiologist, says our author, to expose such mischief makers, to public contempt; and to legal punishment. He thinks religion may act as a sedative, when the imagination of a whole people is unduly exalted, and roused to excess. In this we agree with him: and had he considered religion as equally favourable to individuals also, as calming them when boisterous; animating them when dejected, soothing them under pain, encouraging them under trouble, supporting them under anxiety, and pacifying them under fury, we should have agreed with him in this also. There are undoubtedly diseases on which religion has no effect. but there are others on which it has no trifling influence, not only, or so much by way of cure, as by way of prevention.

ince it has great dominion over the mind as the mind has over the body, there can be no doubt that it is salutary in its tendency, and many instances occur in which this tendency becomes absolute experience. But, let us take care that we do not substitute enthusiasm or superstition for religion; for, as every real good has its supposititious evil, so these injurious pretenders sometimes present themselves under appearances so deceptive, that not every one has skill and ability to detect them till too late.

Our readers will perceive that there are still many views of mankind remaining for the investigation of future physiologists and moralists; and if

The proper study of mankind is man,

we are obliged to whoever attempts to bring us more intimately acquainted with our species, which, under whatever circumstances it is placed, can never be an indifferent or unaffected object, to those who cultivate the sympathies of human nature in themselves.

The reaction of body on mind, as well as that of mind on body, deserves the closest investigation of the moralist no less than of the physiologist: and to ensure the *practical* utility of the object, these sciences must mutually assist each other.

*Of the Cause of the Yellow Fever; and the Means of preventing it in Places not yet infected with it; addressed to the Board of Health in America.* By Thomas Paine. pp. 13. price 1s. Rickman. London. 1807.

Tom Paine, of political memory, thinks, that the impure air, or vapour, that generates the yellow fever issues from the earth, that is, from the new made earth, or ground raised on the muddy and filthy bottom of a river; and which impregnates every fresh body of air that comes over the place, in like manner as air is heated when it passes over fire, &c.

The muddy bottom of rivers contains great quantities of impure, and often inflammable air, (Carburetted-Hydrogen gas) injurious to life; and which remains entangled in the mud till let loose from thence by some accident. This air is produced by the dissolution and decomposition of combustible matter falling into the water and sinking into the mud.

In the fall of the year that New York was evacuated, (1783) General Washington had his head quarters at Mrs. Berrian's, at Rocky-Hill, in Jersey, and I was there:—the Congress then sat at Prince-Town. We had several times been told, that the river or creek, that runs near the bottom of Rocky-Hill, and over which there is a mill, might be set on fire, for that was the term the country people used, and General Washington had a mind to try the experiment the next evening, November 5th. This was to be done, by disturbing the mud at the bottom of the river, and holding something in a blaze, a little above the surface of the water.

A scow had been stationed in the mill-dam, and General Washington, General Lincoln, and myself, and I believe Colonel Cob, and three or four soldiers with poles, were put on board the scow; General Washington placed himself at one end of the scow, and I at the other; each of us had a roll of cartridge paper, which we lighted and held over the water, about two or three inches from the surface, when the soldiers began disturbing the bottom of the river.

As Gen. W. sat at one end of the scow, and I at the other, I could see better any thing that might happen from his light, than I could from my own. When the mud at the bottom was disturbed by the poles, the air bubbles rose fast, and I saw the fire take from Gen. W.'s light and descend from thence to the surface of the water, in a similar manner, as when a lighted candle is held so as to touch the smoke of a candle just blown out, the smoke will take fire, and the fire will descend and light the candle.

The experiment is curious, whatever becomes of the theory.

*Lectures on the Acts of the Apostles,*  
Explanatory and Practical. By R. Stack,  
D. D. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 378.  
Price 7s. Cadell and Davies. London.

THE excellent discourses of the Bishop of London on the Gospels, were well adapted to excite the wishes of whoever was interested in the triumph of the truth, for similar illustrations of other parts of Holy Writ. And in common with many others we regret that his lordship did not pursue his labours, at least so far as the gospel history extended. With a design to supply this omission, Dr. Stack composed the present volume, and though we cannot say it leaves us nothing to wish for on the subject, yet we readily commend the tenor of many parts of it.

As this is the second edition of the work, we shall not examine it at length, but being of opinion that there is ample room for a concise yet critical investigation of the Acts of the Apostles, we are tempted to take this opportunity of introducing a few observations, not altogether irrelevant to such an undertaking.

Speaking of the attempt to honour Paul and Barnabas, by sacrifice, at Lystra, Dr. S. explains the words " nevertheless, he (God) left not himself without witness, in that he did good, and gave us rain from heaven, and fruitful seasons, filling our hearts with fruits and gladness," that is, there was not wanting evidence to those, who should diligently seek him even with that imperfect light, of his care and providence over his creatures; which was manifested in the various blessings bestowed upon them, supplying the comforts and conveniences of life, sustaining the bodies, and making glad the hearts of men."

Now, it should be considered that Jupiter, to whose divinity this honour was intended, was the Deity of the atmosphere

—hunc illi rex aetheris altus honorem  
Juppiter. — [Virgil, comp. Hesiod Theog.]  
that Jupiter *Pluvius*, the *Zeus ombrrios* of the Greeks is a well known description of this deity; that the epithet of "cloud compelling Jove," (which all who have read Pope have met with) is to the same purpose; that fertilizing and fructifying

showers were understood to be his gift, and that he was regarded as the great beneficiary to gods and men. We presume therefore, that there is in the language of the Apostles, a more pointed opposition to the worship paid him, than Dr. S's. explanation develops. *q. d.* " It was not Jupiter, but the true God, who gave you rain; your descending Jove (*Ζεὺς καταβατός*) is unable to effect so benevolent a purpose, being indeed no living power, but " a vanity :" whereas, the Creator of the heaven, earth, and sea, to whose worship we call you, is, the true source of every temporal as well as spiritual blessing." Nor let it be thought that this view of the subject is unfit for the edification of a christian auditory ; 1. since it may induce thankfulness, that we are delivered from the worship of such deities ; 2. The directing of any congregation to the *true* origin of their enjoyments, is the very reverse of injurious to them ; 3. God asserts his dignity under this very character. Comp. Lev. xxxvi. 4. 1 Kings viii. 36. Jer. v. 24. xiv. 22.

Dr. S. bestows considerable attention on the question of the propriety of St. Paul's conduct in circumcising Timothy, but not Titus, which he thus explains.

To answer this question, let us consider by what principle he was actuated in the several instances now mentioned ; and this we shall find to be a desire to beat down the false opinion commonly entertained by the Jews, that their law was in full and perpetual force, and all its rites and ceremonies of indispensable obligation upon Gentiles as well as themselves. This he saw would undermine the whole fabric of the Christian faith, which rests entirely upon the all-sufficient merits and atonement of Christ : and therefore he never suffered it to pass without a decided censure. But while he condemned the use of the ritual law when enjoined as a necessary duty upon Christian converts even Jews, and of course much more so Gentiles ; yet in any other point of view he seems to consider a compliance with it as a matter of indifference, especially by persons of Jewish extraction. He himself, indeed, clearly saw its futility ; but then, as the Gospel gave no express injunction upon the subject, he contented himself with guarding all his hearers against the fatal error so much contended for, without prohibiting every part of the temple service. The temple itself was soon to be destroyed ; when every Christian would evi-

dently see the abolition of the Jewish church as well as state. Till that period should arrive, he naturally deemed it more expedient not to resist with too great violence, and even to accommodate himself to their prejudices, so far as could be done without a sacrifice of truth. Hear his own words ; " I made myself a servant unto all, that I might gain the more ; unto the Jews I became a Jew, that I might gain the Jews."—At the same time he gave up no principle ; and though he circumcised Timothy, a Jew on the side of one parent, yet he strenuously resisted the circumcision of Titus, who was a Greek. Why did he act in these different ways ? Because in the first case it was nothing more than an innocent form employed to gain easier access to the Jews : but in the latter it was made a question of essential duty, with which he would not comply, being repugnant to his settled judgment, and likely to scandalize the Heathen converts. " Neither circumcision," says he, " availeth any thing, nor uncircumcision."—They are in Christ Jesus of no moment whatsoever ; they may be therefore harmless signs or shadows, but of no substance or value. Thus you see the conduct of St. Paul, instead of being objectionable, is a model of that wise discretion, which, while it maintains its integrity, is willing to suit the tempers and dispositions of all men : a discretion not only consistent with, but required by our meek and benevolent religion.

We confess, that we should esteem ourselves obliged to that writer whose labours should completely explain this incident. And we the rather select it for remark, because we know that many judicious persons indulge expectations, that the time is not distant when the Jews shall be united to the Church of Christ. But, we must be allowed to doubt, whether Christian divines do not propose terms to that people with which they have no right to exact compliance. That circumcision ought not to be enforced on the Gentiles, is a proposition very different from that which insists on its being renounced by the Jews. It was among the Jews a *family* rite, not, properly speaking, an *ecclesiastical* institution ; for it existed before the law had established any peculiarities of the Jewish national church : it was therefore common to the descendants of Abraham ; but the Gentiles were not descended from that Patriarch : therefore, it was no *family* mark on them. Titus, then, being a Greek, had no *natural* right to this ordinance ; in becoming a Christian he acquired no

religious right to it, since it formed no part of Christianity : and moreover the reception of it by him, would have been understood as a covenant to receive the whole Mosaic law, as a mean of life ; against which St. Paul uniformly protested. But, Timothy being born of a parent who was herself a descendant of Abraham (*partus sequitur ventrem*) was entitled to every mark of that descent ; and this conception of circumcision as a family custom, banishes every idea of duplicity, in the person who on one occasion advised and promoted it, but on a different occasion, and to a different subject, rejected it absolutely.

It is certain that there is not in circumcision any inseparable aversion to Christianity ; for then the circumcision of Timothy had been criminal ; it is certain, too, that there was a church in Jerusalem whose members were circumcised ; and that its bishops were circumcised during many successions, so that the entire abrogation of that rite was not understood, by those who were most likely to have known the mind of the great Founder of their religion, and of his apostles.

We recommend an unbiased attention to this principle, and to others analogous to it, to those very worthy persons, who have at heart the conversion of the Jews : let them be cautious to demand no more from that people than scripture warrants, remembering, that those who ask too much, may expect to receive nothing.

The worthy writer who has given rise to these remarks, will do us the justice to believe that his volume is only the occasion, not the object of them. He has treated the subjects as they rise, with a simplicity which could not fail of edifying his hearers, and this is beyond question the most honourable character which can be attached to the office of public instructor. If he had taken a somewhat more extensive view of some things, and had spoken more decidedly on others, we should not have thought the worse either of the preacher, or of his auditory. It would also have been an improvement, if the historical incidents alluded to in the epistles had been introduced in their order. Somewhat of a chronological arrangement of events should have concluded the volume.

We select a few passages, the sentiments of which we cannot but approve.

The light of religion is indeed to enter through the understanding ; but should there be any thing to intercept its passage to the heart, *vain* is the brightest intellect, the finest wit, the acutest reason. For religious perception is not so much to know, as to feel the great things which God had done for us, and the infinite obligations we lie under for his most gracious work of redemption. "It is with the *heart* that a man believeth unto life." p. 130.

Religion is a sacred covenant between God and the soul : and an attempt to dissolve or change it by force or punishment, reviling or contempt, is equally absurd and wicked. Reason, and scripture are the only instruments of conviction allowed us. If these fail, our work is done. We must not, with profane cruelty, hand over a wretch to the secular arm, but commit him to the mercy of God ; by whom alone he is to stand or fall ; his righteous and eternal judge. p. 149.

It is true, no such extravagance [as that of Herod Agrippa] may be apprehended on the part of any man in the present times ; but lesser degrees of vainglory are too common, which are both criminal in themselves, and often lead to greater offences. Persons endowed with wisdom or knowledge, strength or courage, beauty or dignity, power or authority, riches or honours, are too apt to boast of these things. Even those of humbler rank are vain of their talents, their ingenuity, their address, and in short of any qualities which give them advantage or influence over other men. It is therefore a duty incumbent on us all, to guard our hearts with particular diligence and care against every the least tendency to self-sufficiency and pride on account of any endowments or attainments, whether natural or acquired, which we may seem to possess. For with such a disposition it is impossible that sentiments either of just practical piety or charity can consist. He that arrogates to himself praise and merit for those things, which are truly the gifts of heaven, and does not refer the glory and blessing with a grateful heart to their divine Author, must be deficient in the very first principles of natural religion ; and there is nothing more apt to excite a contempt of our fellow-creatures, to engender high conceits, and to produce, an uncharitable and insolent behaviour, than so unjust an estimate of our real condition. Our advantages, whatever they be, are a sacred trust, for whose use we are deeply responsible : our talents are bestowed, not for the idle purpose of vaunting and displaying them before a vain admiring world, but to employ them soberly, discreetly, and wisely, to the honour of God and happiness of mankind. p. 196. 197.

*An Essay on Marriage, or, the Duty of Christians to marry religiously. With a few Reflections on imprudent Marriages.—By Wm. Jay. Gye, Bath. 1s. 6d. 1806.*

If Mr. Jay had composed this *Essay, ex mero motu*, had kept it in his closet the *nine years* which the philosophical adviser recommends to writers, and had then published it as it is, we should have been inclined to mark it as an incomplete view of a subject, to which we attach incalculable importance, and which demands a serious, a liberal, and an extensive examination. But, as it appears to have been *commissioned* from him by those whom his respect induced him to obey, he is entitled to every candid and favourable allowance. We subjoin a copy of the *precept* under which he has written.

We, the Ministers of the Wiltshire Association assembled together at Mickleham this day, October 22, 1806, deplored the little regard of late years paid by too many professors of religion to the christian rule of marriage : and deeming it desirable that the attention of the public in general, and our own churches in particular, should be called to this subject, do unanimously request the Rev. Wm. Jay to publish some strictures upon it, and the more so, as he has already *sent forth* a Sermon on the Duties of Husbands and Wives, which has met with great acceptance.

Signed, on behalf of the Association,  
GEORGE MANTEL, Chairman.

It seems, then, that young folks among the Dissenters have transgressed by marrying with parties not approved by their churches ; and that even young ministers have incurred the censure of their elders, by the same indiscretion. This *Essay* is intended to correct this evil. The arguments it presents are scarcely calculated to meet the general question of the marriage of believers with unbelievers. Nevertheless, there are many hints in it which well deserve attention ; and as we desire to see the marriage bond complete, by man and wife being not only *one flesh*, but *one spirit*, we think whatever may contribute to that happiness is highly laudable, and no less beneficial to the community than to individuals.

In proof that our suspicions are not wholly unfounded, we quote the following passage.

The admission of the piety of the parties does not hinder the censure due to a great dis-

parity in years. How unnatural, how indecent is it to see an old man surrounded with infants and babes, which he can scarcely see or hear for the infirmities of age! How unnatural, how odious is it to see a young man fastened to a piece of antiquity, [O fye Mr. J.] so as to perplex strangers to determine whether he is living with a wife or a mother!

The admission of the piety of the parties cannot preclude the necessity of suitablemness. Indeed religion being supposed, suitablemness seems to be the chief requisite to the duty, the respectability, and the happiness of connected life. This fitness takes in an adaptation to each other personally, and also to the situation in which they are called to move. It has commonly been said, that no class of men err so much in this article as ministers. But surely this cannot be admitted. It cannot be supposed that those who have opportunities to make the best choice, commonly make the worst. It cannot be supposed that those whose office it is to inculcate prudence, should be themselves proverbial for indiscretion. It cannot be supposed that those whose incomes are limited, and whose circumstances demand economy, would bring into the management of them those who have been trained up in delicacy and extravagance, and are helpless and profuse. It cannot be supposed that men, whose office is respectable, and productive of social intercourse, would select vulgarity and ignorance, unfit to be either seen or heard, merely because it is pious.—A minister is to inculcate order and regularity—and would he marry a female that would render his house a scene of confusion and tumult? A minister is to shew how the claims of life and religion harmonize, and to assign to the duties of each their own place and season—and would he marry a rattle-brain, who, instead of being a keeper at home, has been always rambling after some new preacher; who, instead of quietly glorifying God in her proper sphere of action, has been endeavouring to excite public attention; who has been zealous in matters of doubtful disputation, but has treated as beneath her regard, common and relative obligations? Need he be told, that a becoming behaviour in a lower and private station, is the surest pledge of, and the best preparation for, a proper behaviour in higher and more public situation?—A minister is to recommend neatness and all the decencies of life—and would he marry a slattern? A minister is to shew that the ornament of a meek and quiet spirit is in the sight of God of great price—and would he marry a scold? A minister is to stand in the same relation to all his people who demand his love and service—and could he marry a female who would fondly attach herself to a few cronies, listen to all their secrets and divulge her own, and

form cabals and schisms, which will render his residence unpleasant, or occasion his removal?

Mr. Jay is too gallant a man to offend the ladies by undue severity; he contents himself with insinuating their faults, & revers; but we are such point blank speakers, that we charge **ALL** our female readers, without exception, whatever station they occupy, to avoid these crimes—extravagance, vulgarity, disorder, gadding abroad, slatternliness, and scolding! As to a few cronies, or so, we would not be too harsh, or cynical; for as “there is no man who doeth good and sinneth not,” so there is no woman without a something, which may afford her husband’s affection, an opportunity of grateful triumph, either by forbearance, or by forgiveness.

*The Architectural Antiquities of Great-Britain*, represented and illustrated in a series of Plans, Elevations, Views, &c. of various Ancient Edifices with historical and descriptive accounts of each. By John Britton. This first division of the work contains thirty-nine highly finished engravings. With historical and descriptive accounts of the following subjects. St. Botolph's Priory Church, Colchester, Essex; Dunstable Priory Church, Bedfordshire; Layer-Marney Hall, Essex; the Abbey Gateway, &c. at Abingdon, Berkshire; King's College Chapel, Cambridge; the Temple Church, London; the Two Circular Churches, at Northampton and at Cambridge. Crosses—at Hereford, Cheddar, Leighton - Buzzard, Geddington, Northampton, Waltham, Chichester, Winchester, Stourhead, Malmesbury, Glastonbury, Gloucester, Coventry, &c. &c. Quarto. Price £2. 12s. 6d. Extra £4. Longman and Co. London. 1806.

A handsome and elaborate work; creditable to the writer, the draughtsmen, the engravers, and the publishers. The subjects are well selected; and are treated in a manner calculated to illustrate many obscure points in the history of British art. By their arrangement and combination they mutually elucidate each other, and cannot fail of interesting the judicious antiquary, the man of science and the man of taste.

Mr. Britton will not, however, be uni-

versally followed, in placing the Roman colony of *Camulodonum* at Colchester; since *Maldon* has too long enjoyed that distinction, to be deprived of it without very superior authority. Be that as it may, the Priory Church of St. Botolph in Colchester, exhibits many marks of a mode of construction, the principles of which were derived from the Romans. Considerable masses of Roman bricks, and other materials, probably procured from some Roman structure adjacent, are worked up in it. The most striking feature in this building, considered as an architectural composition, is the *intersecting* arches, of which two tiers appear to have ornamented the frontispiece. Mr. B. thinks, that these *intersections* are the origin of the *pointed* arch, which afterwards prevailed among us during many ages. This is also the opinion of Sir R. C. Hoare, as appears in his essay annexed to his *Gisaldus*.

And this may have been the fact in Britain, although the earliest ages of architecture present, in the coverings of tombs, in the roof of the gallery of the Great Pyramid at Giza, (which is *en dos d'asne*) and elsewhere, the rudiments of the pointed arch, in the triangles which they exhibit; and although the equilateral triangle, the parent of the most beautiful pointed arch, is a perfect mathematical figure, not less likely to occur to an architect, than a semicircle.

Dunstable Priory is an interesting object: but, we cannot help wishing that Mr. B. had obtained leave to examine accurately (perhaps even by digging) the adjoining garden; as we have repeatedly been led to suspect, that the great door was formerly in the middle of the front, and that the building extended originally much farther to the right; perhaps far enough to correspond symmetrically with the tower, &c. to the left. This hint may be of use on some future occasion; and the adoption of it may recover at least the plans of edifices, which though now dilapidated into deformity, were originally composed with commendable attention to correspondence of parts.

The chapel of King's College, Cambridge, is an exquisite memorial of consummate skill, and royal munificence. It is the very perfection of that species of

what is improperly, though commonly, called *Gothic*, to which it belongs. The history of its erection is here given at considerable length, with many particulars, and several extremely well executed plates. The plans of the building and of the roof, with the sections, &c. have great merit. But, passing an object already of extensive celebrity, we confess that we are tempted by the novelty of the succeeding subject, that of Round Churches, to pay it particular attention. The author begins this discussion by referring to the temples of the earliest ages, observing that,

Among the most ancient (if not really the very first) species of *circular temples*, were those rude piles of stones, which are usually denominated druidical. These are almost uniformly (universally) disposed in a circle, and consist of one, two, or four concentric rows of *unwrought* stones.—There are many in Britain—the most considerable in size, and popular in estimation, are those of *Stonehenge*, and *Avelury*, in Wiltshire. The former has obtained extraordinary celebrity; but the temple at the latter place, though on a *much more stupendous scale*, and surprising plan, is seldom alluded to by antiquaries, and scarcely known even to Englishmen. Its centre consisted of a *circular* range of immense stones, with *four other circles* within the area. The whole was environed with a deep ditch, and a high bank.

The circular temples of Greece and Rome, are afterwards adverted to; but the erection of *Christian* temples of this form, is referred by our author, with great probability, to a desire of imitating the circular part of the church of the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem. This principle dates them about the time of the *Crusades*; and attributes them more immediately to the Knights Templars. The church of the Holy Sepulchre was built by the Empress Helena, the mother of Constantine: but whether the structure raised by her order, stood for many ages, or whether any parts of the present structure are of her time, is rendered doubtful, because such (insufficient) descriptions of this edifice as have come down to us, do not agree with what is now extant; and we know also, that Charlemagne *rebuilt* this venerated edifice A.D. 813. However, as a circular cloister does at this time surround the sacred tomb, and appears to be of Roman construction, the

probability is, that this was the origin of other sacred structures of a like form, in distant countries of Christendom.

The most antient round church we know, is St. Sepulchre's at Cambridge, and it is a truly interesting monument of British antiquity: considering its date, it is also well preserved (though it bears greater marks of age than Mr. B.'s plate exhibits). "It consisted of a circular wall, originally perforated with six semicircular-headed windows, and an ornamented doorway of the same shape. Within is a circular colonnade of eight columns: short, massive, and with slightly ornamented capitals. Eight semi-circular arches spring from these," and support a tower of solid construction. To this circular edifice is now annexed a *square* building, and the whole answers the purpose of a parish church.

The second instance is, St. Sepulchre's Church at Northampton: which has a good deal of timber in its construction; and has also received the addition of a square chancel, &c. But the most complete example of the kind, is the Temple Church at London; a structure which well repays the inquisitive examination of the antiquary and virtuoso. This church was dedicated A.D. 1185. Like the others, it has received a square addition, in which worship is performed, but Mr. B. considers the circular part, as being of that date; though the other parts are somewhat later, perhaps of 1240. The doorway is singular and curious. We are sorry to learn that in some places this structure manifests symptoms of decay: and we unite our wishes with those of our author, for immediate inspection and reparation.

Mr. Britton has taken uncommon pains with the subject of Stone Crosses, and it occupies a considerable portion of this part of his work. The origin of such memorials he traces also, to the earliest ages; and mentions the stone pillar erected by Jacob, Gen. xxviii. 18. as an instance, not unallied, by its commemorative intention, to some of those crosses which still exist among us.

At what period *crucifixion* was adopted as a punishment, we are not informed; but we know that it was long before the decease of our blessed Lord: and that it had already furnished language with a

variety of expressions and comparisons, which prove at once its frequency and the general persuasion of its tortures.

In directing his researches to the British islands, Mr. B. seems to have had no suspicion that Christianity was introduced before the time of Austin's mission to the Saxons; yet, we apprehend, that the notion which places the transmission of the gospel to Britain, in the very days of the Apostles, is not without reasons to support it. It is usually thought that Claudia 2. Tim. iv. 21. was a British Lady, and if any credit is due to the Welsh historical poems, Christianity was imported from Rome at the time when Caradoc, or Caractacus was prisoner there. That it was received prior to the days of Austin may be safely inferred from the British manner and time of keeping Easter, which was decidedly coincident with the custom of the Eastern (or Greek) church, and not according to that of the Western (or Romish) church. Britain, therefore, did not receive its doctrines from Rome,\* after the beginning of the second century, when that question was first started, but, either at an earlier period from that city, before the dispute on this practice, or immediately from the Greeks. We do not think the latter supposition tenable, notwithstanding the legendary story of Joseph of Arimathea, and the feeble support of it by the Glastonbury thorn.

This subject is likely to be resumed in another department of our work; but it deserves enquiry, whether the Christians paid any regard to the cross as a symbol of their profession before the days of Helena, the history of whose finding the true cross at Jerusalem, might with propriety have been alluded to by Mr. B. It is placed A. D. 326.

If Helena was induced to search after the cross, because the badge had become popular, then we may place the erection of crosses in a more remote antiquity, than we are at liberty to do, if the fashion originated *after* that empress had taken so much pains to give this subject all possible celebrity. We know that the token of the primitive Christians was a fish

\* The wife of Aulus Plautius who commanded in Britain, A. D. 43. was a Christian.

(*ixθwɔ:s* \*) in Italy, at least: but there is a *possibility*, that where they were not exposed to persecution, they might adopt the cross. And this carries back the *possibility* of the erection of stone crosses, beyond the times of the Danes or the Saxons, to whom they have hitherto been referred; and accounts for their being found in many parts of Wales, where neither of those nations penetrated.

We have ventured these remarks in order to remove some of the embarrassments under which Mr. B. appears to labour. The Danes were *Pagans*; they would, therefore, rather have destroyed crosses than have erected them; and the Saxons were *Pagans* also.

It now becomes a question whether those stones of rude workmanship which are found inscribed with a cross, were *idol-stones*, *bowing-stones*, of the ancient British inhabitants, consecrated by the addition of this sacred figure, on a later conversion of the nation, or, erections by a very early race of Christians, who marked these rough monuments with that emblem. Much may be said against the notion of their being later consecrations; since, the very recollection that they had been objects of idolatrous worship, was enough to have roused the zeal of the missionaries to effect their demolition, especially, as their size, or weight, is seldom such as to have rendered that undertaking very laborious.

The inferences from this reasoning are supported by the Welch historical traditions, and in return contribute to establish them. Neither is it unlikely that Constantine, who was born in Britain, had acquired a knowledge of Christianity, in his native land, which prepared his mind in some degree, at least, for his after professions.

|     |          |   |          |
|-----|----------|---|----------|
| * I | Iēous    | - | Jesus    |
| X   | Xp̄is̄os | - | Christ   |
| Θ   | Θes̄     | - | of God   |
| T   | T̄ios̄   | - | the Son: |
| O   | O        | - | the      |
| Σ   | Σaw̄n̄p̄ | - | Saviour. |

The first letters of this confession of faith, form the word *ixθwɔ:s*, which signifies a *fish*; and the figure of a fish still remains sculptured on several tombs, in Italy, as a mark of Christianity, understood by fellow Christians.

Returning from this digression, to the consideration of the work before us, we have to thank Mr. B. for assembling a number of ancient stone crosses; from those of the rudest workmanship and simplest forms, therefore thought to be the most ancient, to those beautiful and highly decorated examples, which we owe to the masterly execution of later ages. Crosses were set as marks of boundaries, of battles, of burial places, and of other remarkable events. They are of various forms, from the single stone rudely insculptured, to the taper structure adorned with spiracles, and figures, and enriched with ornaments on several faces. The cross was often the place for a market, and many crosses have much the air of a market house. Some crosses were places for public devotion; and all were, more or less, objects of private veneration. Very few of those which formerly adorned the principal streets of our chief cities, are now remaining in their places. Time had rendered many of them dangerous: and the spirit of improvement has removed not a few. We could have wished that others beside that of Bristol had met with purchasers, who would have re-erected them, in their parks or gardens; where they could not but form most interesting and curious objects.

The most elegant series of crosses with which England was adorned, was erected by Edward I. to the memory of his queen Eleanor, at the places where her corpse rested, in its progress from Nottinghamshire to London. Mr. Gough states that there were originally fifteen of these beautiful structures, but only three are now remaining. The great elegance of these excite our regret that the others have perished: and whoever has seen the cross at Geddington, that near Northampton, and that at Waltham, though standing by the road side, it has sustained a series of injuries, will unite his regret for the loss of those which have been destroyed, and his wishes for a careful preservation of what yet remain.

Our readers will perceive that we have treated this work with attention, and we dismiss it with our hearty commendation. We must however advise a strict revision of the language and style in which these accounts are composed; for though we shall not particularize any defects, yet we have marked several expressions, the in-

correctness of which should have excluded them from a work like the present.

We should not think it assuming too much if Mr. B., when occasion serves, would favour us with a sketch of what *restorations* he may have discovered adequate authorities for. A few simple outlines would sufficiently shew the general composition of many buildings, which now appear to the unlearned eye no better than a mass of confusion.

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*Memoirs of the Life of Colonel Hutchinson*, Governor of Nottingham Castle and Town, Representative of the County of Nottingham in the Long Parliament, and of the Town of Nottingham in the first Parliament of Charles II., &c. Written by his Widow, Letey, daughter of Sir Allen Apsley, Lieutenant of the Tower. Now first published from the original Manuscript, by the Rev. Julius Hutchinson, &c. &c. 4to. pp. 447, price £1. 11s. 6d. Longman, 1800.

THIS is a very curious book. The author, a lady, had the rare advantage of a learned education; and certainly her style may vie in purity and force of language with that of any of her contemporaries. Works of this kind are the true sources of history. They may be deemed a sort of *literary medals*, bearing the correct "image and superscription" of the times in which they were struck. Mrs. Hutchinson was herself an actor in the scenes which she describes, and, *assuming one point*, that the light in which she viewed them was the *true one*, they are most graphically delineated with equal accuracy and spirit. But in estimating her work, we are called to make great allowances for her adherence to those principles, both religious and political, which overturned the Church and destroyed the King in the seventeenth century. Her phraseology is that of the Puritans. However, when we are aware of the peculiar prepossession of an author, we may read his book without material danger; and, with this caution, Mrs. Hutchinson's history may be perused with safety.

The Editor dedicates his volume to the Prince of Wales; but it is hard to say how his patron will relish the assertion in a note, p. 76, that "the force of *opinion* is the only real force of any Prince, and

the *notion* of inviolability his best protection." Why omit the law of the land, and the precepts of religion? The book may be judged of, in some degree, by the circumstance of its publication having been particularly solicited by Mrs. Macaulay; and the *liberal* principles of its Editor, the Rev. Julius Hutchinson, may be gathered from the following passage in the preface, p. vii. Colonel Hutchinson, at one period of his life, read a great deal of polemical divinity—but, says the Editor, we are bound to exculpate him from *bigotry*.

The Independents, to whose party, if a man of so much candour and liberality can be said to be of any party, he belonged, proceeded upon that principle, which *however* general *soever* it ought to be, is *however* unfortunately very uncommon, of allowing to all that liberty of conscience they demanded for themselves. Accordingly they began by desiring *only* an act to be passed "for taking away all coercive power, authority, and jurisdiction from Bishops, extending to civil penalties, &c." It was not till after they saw the extreme pertinaciousness of the King to retain the Bishops as instruments at a future opportunity to remount his system of arbitrary sway, and that the "prelatical party" about him prevailed with him to "refuse an accommodation, and hazard his crown and life, rather than diminish their greatness and power to persecute others," that they insisted on the abolition of the order. It was quite a different party, that of the rigid presbyterians, and peculiarly their ministers, "who cried out against the 'tyranny of the Bishops, only that they 'might get the power into their own hands, 'and without the name, might exercise the 'authority of Popes.'" That, instead of this power being irrevocably and immovably established over us, we are now governed by the mildest church discipline in the universe, we owe to these Independents!

We now leave the Editor and pass to his book. There are two good portraits in it, one of Colonel Hutchinson, and another of his lady; a fragment of whose life, written by herself, follows the preface, preceded by a pedigree of the family, and followed by a fac-simile of her handwriting. Next comes a character of Colonel Hutchinson, addressed by his widow to her children.—The Colonel was born at Nottingham in September 1616. We have a perspective view of the castle of which he was governor; but it is not the ancient fortress, it is a view of the palace

erected on the site of the old castle by the Duke of Newcastle; in which, by the way, the furniture used by Marshal Tallard, taken prisoner at Blenheim, is yet preserved, in the identical chamber in which he was confined. A plan of the ancient castle is annexed, but although there are figures of reference in it, *there is no explanation to which they refer!* We subjoin a specimen of Mrs. Hutchinson's manner of writing.

One day, as Mr. Hutchinson was at dinner the Mayor of Nottingham sent him word that the high Sheriff had broken open the lock of the country's ammunition, which was left in his (Mr. H.'s) trust, and was about to take it away. Mr. Hutchinson immediately went in all haste to prevent it, but before he came to the town (from Owthorpe, where he then resided) it was gone, and some of the King's soldiers were already come to town, and were plund'ring all the honest men of their arms. As one of them had taken a muskett seeing Mr. Hutchinson goe by, he wisht it loaden for his sake, and sayd he hoped the day would shortly come when all such roundheads would be fair markes for them. This name of roundhead coming so opportunely in, I shall make a little digression to tell how it came up. When puritanisme grew into a faction, the zealots distinguish themselves, both men and women, by severall affectations of habitt, looks, and words, which, had it bene a reall declension of vanity, and embracing of sobriety in all those things, had bene most commendable in them, but their quick forsaking of those things, when they were where they would be, shew'd that they either never tooke them up for conscience, or were corrupted by their prosperity to take up those vaine things they durst not practice under persecution. Among other affected habits, few of the puritanes, what degree soever they were off, wore their haire long enough to cover their eares; and the ministers and many others cut it close round their heads, with so many little peakes, as was something ridiculous to behold; whereupon Cleaveland in his hue and cry after them, begins, "with havre in characters and luggs in text, &c." From this custom of wearing their haires, that name of roundhead became the scornerful terme given to the whole Parliament party; whose army indeed marcht out so, but, as if they had bene sent out only till their haire was grownne, two or three yeares after, any stranger that had seene them, would have enquired the reason of that name. It was very ill applied to Mr. Hutchinson, who having naturally a very fine thicksett head of haire, kept it clean and handsome, so that it was a great ornament to him, although the godly of those dayes,

when he embraced their party, would not allow him to be religious, because his hayre was not in their cutt, nor his words in their phraze, nor such little formalities altogether fitted to their humor, who were many of them so weake as to esteeme rather for such insignificant circumstances, than for solid wisdom, piety, and courage which brought reall ayd and honour to their party.

Our readers will perceive that the Editor has scrupulously adhered to the orthography of his author; this shews his good sense and his good taste. It is wonderful to see how many of our ancient authours are made to write and spell in modern English. The progress of language forms a chapter in the great history of the human mind, and that capricious departure from the orthography of their age, which deforms many editions of our older writers, is almost as bad as removing of landmarks. Of all the numerous late editions of Shakespeare, for instance, Capel's is the only one which preserves the diction of the poet in its native and original state.

We meet with a passage, now and then, in this very interesting work, which strongly reminds us of Clarendon. We shall give another specimen which may serve as a parallel to Clarendon's Catastrophe of Lord Brooke, shot in the eye from St. Chad's Cathedral Church at Litchfield on St. Chad's day.

The Earle of Kingston a few months stood neuter, and would not declare himself of either party, and being a man of great wealth and dependancies, many people hung in suspense by his example; whereupon the gentlemen of Nottingham often spoke to his sonne, to perswade his father to declare himself; but he told them he knew his fathers affections were firme to the Parliament, that he had encouraged him to join with them, and promised him money to carrie it on, and such like things, which he continually assured them, till the Collonel's cold behaviour and some other passages, made them at length, those at least who were firme to the cause, jealous both of the father and the sonne. Hereupon when the danger grew more eminent, and my Lord lay out a brave prey to the enemie, they sent Capitaine Lomax, one of the committee, to understand his affections from himselfe, and to presse him to declare for the Parliament, in that so needful season. My Lord professing himselfe to him rather desirous of peace, and fully resolved not to act on either side, made a serious inprecation on himselfe in these wordes, "when," said he, "I take armes with the King against the Parliament, or with the Parliament against

the King, let a cannon bullet devide me betweene them ;" which God was pleased to bring to passe a few months after ; for he was going into Gainsborough, and there taking up arms for the King, was surpriz'd by my Lord Willoughby, and, after a handsome defence of himself, yielded, and was put prisoner into a pinnace, and sent down the river to Hull, when my Lord Newcastle's armie marching along the shore, shot at the pinnace, and being in danger, the Earle of Kingston went up upon the decks to shew himselfe, and to prevale with them to forbear shooting ; but as soone as he appear'd, a cannon bullet flew from the King's armie and devide him in the middle, being then in the Parliament's pinnace ; who perished according to his owne unhappy imprecation. His declaring himselfe for the King, as it enforced the royall, so it weakned the other party.

*Lambeth Palace illustrated by a Series of Views, representing its most interesting Antiquities in Buildings, Portraits, stained Glass, &c. Royal Quarto. pp. 90. plates. Price £2. 2s. Brayley, London. 1806.*

FORMERLY books when printed and published were adornd with plates, and these were only viewed in the light of so many agreeable but not indispensablenesses : but lately, the case is altered, and many prints are first executed, to which are appended literary histories, illustrations, and explanations. The present work comes under this description ; the plates were intended to form the main article, but afterwards it was thought proper that the history of the Palace should be compiled to accompany them. They are, therefore, sold either separately, or with the letter press.

It is somewhat remarkable that near as Lambeth is to London, it should have so little attracted the notice of antiquary artists, who ramble to greater distances in search of curious edifices, when a shorter journey might answer their purpose. The present publishers appear to have taken a complete view of this palace, in its various parts ; and they are entitled to our thanks for having communicated several interesting portraits of persons eminent in our national history, as well as particulars of the architecture, &c. which this structure exhibits.

The external appearance of the town residence of the Archbishop of Canter-

bury, most certainly does not offend by its assumption of pontifical magnificence ; the want of correspondence in its parts, gives it a very uncouth appearance, whether seen from the water or from the land. Nor is the *coup d'œil* much improved when we have entered the palace. The different ages of the buildings, their different styles, and arrangements, present no well-combined whole, and produce no effect, as a composition. The mind which venerates merit, nevertheless feels that this is the place for a tribute of respect to those excellent persons who have made it their residence, and even to the memory of those unfortunates who have here endured sufferings for conscience sake, of which (God be praised) we have no knowledge by experience in the present day.

The volume before us opens with an extremely curious print of Queen Catherine Parr : it has every appearance of being genuine, and a likeness. Other portraits are—two of Archbishop Chicheley, one from a window of stained glass, the other from a picture : one of Archbishop Arundel in the time of Henry IV. the original of which is highly valuable : a very characteristic portrait of Cardinal Pole ; bespeaking at once the man of mind, the statesman, and the nobleman.

The views are—of the Court Yard, the Library, the Guard Room, the Chapel, the Post Room, with the prisons where the Lollards were confined on account of their religious tenets, the walls of which yet retain the names of those unhappy professors, and bear sufficient evidence to the truth of history, so far as relates to them. Other plates shew details of the arms, the ornaments, &c. whatever is recommended by curiosity or antiquity. A plan of the whole palace should have been added.

The letter press contains a history of the manor, of the buildings, notices of the founders, of the Archbishops, who have repaired, or built various parts, &c. If there is not much novelty in the performance, it nevertheless displays diligence, and we may commend it for correctness, though it does not greatly abound in amusement. An extract or two, nevertheless, may be acceptable to our readers.

The registers belonging to the see of Canterbury, of which the *dépôt* is at

Lambeth, go no farther back than 1279. Archbishop Kilwarby, who resigned the see that year, on being made Cardinal, took the former registers to Rome, where they have been in vain sought after. The number of MSS. on miscellaneous subjects is about 1200. The series of portraits from Archbishop Laud 1633, to the present metropolitan, shew the progress of fashion in the clerical dress: ruffs, bands, wigs, &c.

The *dole* which has been immemorially given to the poor by the Archbishop of Canterbury, is constantly distributed at the great gate. The word *dole* signifies a share, and is still occasionally used in modern languages. In former times it was understood of the relief given to the indigent at the gates of great men. Stowe, in his examples of house-keeping, laments the decline of this laudable custom in his day, which before had been so general, that *alms-dishes* (into which certain portions of meat, for the needy were carved) were to be seen at every nobleman's and prelate's table; and the quantities of provision that were given away were prodigious. Richard de Berry, Bishop of Durham, in the reign of Edward III. had every week eight quarters of wheat made into bread for the poor, besides his alms-dishes, fragments of his house, and great sums of money bestowed by him in his journeys. West, Bishop of Ely, in 1552, daily fed 200 poor people at his gates; and the Lord Cromwell usually the same number. Edward, Earl of Derby, fed upwards of 60 aged poor, besides all comers, thrice a week, and furnished on Good Friday 2,700 people with meat, drink and money. Others were equally liberal.

Robert Winchelsea gave every Friday and Saturday, unto every beggar that came to his door, a *loaf* of bread of a farthing price.—(Stowe says, a loaf of bread sufficient for that day.)—in time of dearth there were usually 5,000; in a plentiful time 4,000 loaves distributed.

The *dole* now distributed at Lambeth gate consists of fifteen quartern loaves, nine stone of beef, and five shillings worth of half-pence. These are divided into three equal portions, and distributed every Sunday, Tuesday, and Thursday, among thirty poor parishioners of Lambeth. The beef is made into broth, thickened with oatmeal, divided into ten equal shares, and is distributed with half of one of the loaves, a pitcher of the broth, and twopence, to as many poor persons, who are thus weekly relieved by rotation. Besides this relief, his Grace of Canterbury distributes a considerable sum annually to poor housekeepers. p. 72.

Beachy Head: with other Poems. By Charlotte Smith. Now first published. Crown 8vo. pp. 228. For the Author. Price 6s. Johnson. London. 1807.

THE reputation of the late Mrs. Smith, ensures a certain degree of popularity to the productions of her pen; the elegance and spirit of her works deserve the distinction; and far be it from us, now she is no more, to deprecate in the smallest degree, those poems which her plaintive muse has left us. The principal performance in this little volume, Beachy Head, is an unfinished effort, of which some passages are extremely pleasing: and there is no doubt that had the writer compleated it, its pathos would have been heightened, and her *revisal* of it would have increased the interest which accompanies it, even in its present state.

Mrs. Smith had observed nature with keener eye than many who present their works to the public, and the notes which accompany these poems, are proofs of her general attention and accuracy. They are, also, proofs of her candour; as she is not above acknowledging mistake.

The following specimen will recommend itself to the reader.

#### THE HOROLOGE OF THE FIELDS,

Addressed to a Young Lady, on seeing at the House of an Acquaintance a magnificent French Timepiece.

For her who owns this splendid toy,  
Where use with elegance unites,  
Still may its index point to joy,  
And moments wing'd with new delights.

Sweet may resound each silver-bell,—  
And never quick returning chime,  
Seem in reproving notes to tell,  
Of hours mispent, and murder'd time.

Tho' Fortune, Emily, deny  
To us these splendid works of art,  
The woods, the lawns, the heaths supply  
Lessons from nature to the heart.

In every copse, and shelter'd dell,  
Unveil'd to the observant eye,  
Are faithful monitors, who tell  
How pass the hours and seasons by.

The green robed children of the spring  
Will mark the periods as they pass,  
Mingle with leaves time's feather'd wing,  
And bind with flowers his silent glass.

Mark where transparent waters glide,  
Soft flowing o'er their tranquil bed ;  
There, cradled on the dimpling tide,  
Nymphaea rests her lovely head.

But conscious of the earliest beam,  
She rises from her humid rest,  
And sees reflected in the stream  
The virgin whiteness of her breast.

Till the bright day-star to the west  
Declines, in Ocean's surge to lave,  
Then folded in her modest vest,  
She slumbers on the rocking wave.

See Hieracium's various tribe,  
Of plumy seed and radiate flowers,  
The course of Time their blooms describe,  
And wake or sleep appointed hours.

Broad o'er its imbricated cup  
The Goatsbeard spreads its golden rays,  
But shuts its cautious petals up,  
Retreating from the noon-tide blaze :

Pale as a pensive cloister'd nun  
The Bethlehem-star, her face unveils,  
When o'er the mountain peers the Sun,  
But shades it from the vesper gales.

Among the loose and arid sands  
The humble Arenaria creeps,  
Slowly the purple star expands,  
But soon within its calyx sleeps.

And those small bells so lightly ray'd  
With young Aurora's rosy hue,  
Are to the noon-tide Sun display'd,  
But shut their plaits against the dew.

On upland slopes the shepherds mark  
The hour, when as the dial true,  
Cichorium to the towering Lark,  
Lifts her soft eyes, serenely blue.

And thou, "Wee crimson tipped flower,"  
Gatherest thy fringed mantle round  
Thy bosom, at the closing hour,  
When night drops bathe the turf'y ground.

Unlike Silene; who declines  
The garish noontide's blazing light;  
But when the evening crescent shines  
Gives all her sweetness to the night.

Thus in each flower and simple bell,  
That in our path untrodden lie,  
Are sweet remembrancers who tell  
How fast the winged moments fly.

Time will steal on with ceaseless pace,  
Yet lose we not the fleeting hours,  
Who still their fairy footsteps trace,  
As light they dance among the flowers.

*Statistical Account of the United States of America.* By D. F. Donnant, translated from the French by W. Playfair, with Additions for the Use of commercial Men. Illustrated by a divided Circle, representing the proportional Extent of the different States, the Eastern Country, and the newly-acquired Territory of Louisiana. 8vo. pp. 70. Price 7s. *Greenland and Norris, London.*

In our first volume, p. 1323, we gave a very recent view of several articles of American statistics: and in p. xxx. of our Introduction, a succinct statement of the national funds. The present little work comprises various other particulars, which those who are connected with that country will not fail to turn to their advantage. It is intended by Mr. Playfair, as a merchant's book; and has many remarks deserving the attention of speculative men. We shall, however, select such particulars as have not hitherto appeared in our work; by way rather of registering than of reviewing this performance.

|                                                                    |                  |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------|
| Extent in square miles, (previous to the acquisition of Louisiana) | 1,169,925        |
| Number of inhabitants in 1801                                      | 8,053,000        |
| Average number of inhabitants per square mile . . . . .            | 7                |
| Extent in English acres . . . . .                                  | 949,000,000      |
| Acres covered with water . . . . .                                 | 57,000,000       |
| Acres to each person . . . . .                                     | 90               |
| Revenue in dollars, 15,000,000                                     | £3,375,000       |
| Expenditure annually . . . . .                                     | 3,037,500        |
| Public debt . . . . .                                              | 18,000,000       |
| Land forces in time of peace . . . . .                             | 30,000           |
| Seamen in time of peace . . . . .                                  | 40,000           |
| Frigates, sloops, &c. of war . . . . .                             | 36               |
| Annual exportation, value of                                       | £15,000,000      |
| Great divisions of the country . . . . .                           | 16               |
| Tonnage of merchant vessels . . . . .                              | 800,000          |
| Taxes on an average per person                                     | 8 shillings      |
| Pay of ordinary seamen per month, 14 dollars, or                   | £3 3s            |
| Interest of money . . . . .                                        | 7 and 8 per cent |
| Length of the country in English miles . . . . .                   | 1,650            |
| Breadth of ditto . . . . .                                         | 4,200            |
| Number of inhabitants in Philadelphia . . . . .                    | 80,000           |

The whole country is too extensive to remain under one government for a long period—there is at least no example of a republic on so large a scale.

The Anglo-Americans, as they may be called, extending so far already, and increasing so fast, will naturally take possession of the mouths of all the rivers that convey their produce to the ocean or the Gulph of Mexico. They will settle to the West of the Mississippi, so as by securing both shores to have full possession of the navigation. The extent to which they may go in that direction will probably be as far as the rivers that fall into the Mississippi are navigable, and the lands well watered. This would include a country of nearly a million of square miles, and would almost double the extent of the civilized and peopled portion of America. It would admit of a population of 200,000,000.

All that prodigious extent of country will be peopled with men speaking the English language, and having English laws and manners, and naturally disposed to use English manufactures, in preference to those of any other nation.

The interior country of America, so extensive, fertile, and well peopled, will not, for many ages, be a manufacturing country. Its industry and capital will be directed towards agriculture; and if matters are so conducted that English goods find their way there upon reasonable terms, the consumption of them will probably be such as to give occupation for our manufacturers on an increased scale for many years to come.

As for England, it must cultivate manufactures and commerce; and if it acts wisely, will find an ample market in America. We owe much to the wisdom and moderation of those who have gone before us; and by wisdom and moderation alone can we preserve those advantages which have been our inheritance. It ill-becomes us to be jealous of other nations; for let the question be argued as it may, we at least have our share of commerce; and we may not only keep it, but see it increase, if we avoid those errors which have hitherto brought on the decline and ruin of all wealthy nations. We have no occasion to grasp, let us only rely on the interest of other people for trading with us, and we shall have a surer hold than we can have by any other means. The separation of the United States of America from the British Government, is the best example of this: while we struggled for dominion we had little profit and great expense. Since we lost the dominion we have had great profit without any expense, and that the advantages will increase, is as certain as the augmenting population of America; provided we trust to mutual interest as the tenure by which we are to enjoy the advantage, and act accordingly.

*Designs for small Picturesque Cottages, and Hunting-Boxes, adapted for Ornamental Retreats for Hunting and Shooting; also some Designs for Park Entrances, Bridges, &c. carefully studied and thrown into Perspective. By E. Gyfford, Architect. Plates 26. Part I. Price £1. 11. 6. Plates 27. Part II. Price £1. 11. 6. Royal 4to. Taylor, London, 1807.*

We commend the idea of this artist of putting his designs into perspective: as geometrical elevations by no means shew the effect which any structure will have when actually executed; and very few persons are capable of making the necessary allowances for those variations of appearance which take place as matters of course.

As to the general character of these designs, the author seems to have intended them for unlimited duration; they are massive, and substantial. In the first Part, especially, the author has selected for his plans, a series of the most difficult figures, we have ever inspected. Some of them are managed with considerable skill. But the loss of room, in buildings of which the plans are triangular, semi-circular, and mixed circles and squares together, is a disadvantage, which can rarely be compensated by conveniences of any kind. Peculiar ground, no doubt, requires peculiar management; and, in cities, the very awkward and contracted dimensions which a builder sometimes has to cover, without the possibility of making any alteration, leaves him nothing but a choice of difficulties. It is not so in pleasure-grounds, and in the country: nor can we consider the introduction of such perplexities as an example to be followed. Nevertheless, where real difficulties occur, a hint may be taken from Mr. Gyfford, and his work may be of use, under circumstances to which more familiar compositions do not apply.

Among the imitations of foreign articles which appear among us, we are somewhat surprised that nobody has hitherto thought of adapting a selection of real edifices of elegant character from the best authorities of travellers and others who have communicated designs of them. They are at least as capable of being adapted to our own country, as imaginary conceptions which profess to imitate their

style. For instance, in Turner's Travels to Thibet, there is, a bridge, or two, extremely picturesque and peculiar; in Major Symes's Travels to Ava, in Lord Macartney's Embassy to China, and in other publications of a modern date, there are instances of ingenuity, which if we must adopt imitations of foreign constructions, are well intitled to attention. But, from whatever sources the objects which we adopt, are drawn, the utmost jealousy should be exerted to maintain a harmony with the general appearance of English landscape, and the proper character of the country; without which art degenerates into affectation, and what should be ornamental becomes disgusting to the eye of well-taught taste.

*Anatomical Examinations.* A complete Series of Anatomical Questions, with Answers. The Answers arranged so as to form an Elementary System of Anatomy, and intended as preparatory to Examinations at Surgeons Hall. To which are annexed, Tables of the Bones, Muscles and Arteries, 2 vols. small 12mo. pp. 567. Price 10s. 6d. Highley, London, 1807.

Those are not the most useful books which are the most shewy, or which best figure in a review, or an abstract. The present work does not afford us a single article for transcription, yet it may prove profitable to students in surgery. We are glad to see that the author begins his preface by observing that, "Anatomy must be learnt in the dissecting room; it is only there, aided by competent teachers, that the student can acquire such information in this branch of his studies, as will be practically useful to him. But (he proceeds) in this pursuit the memory may receive great and important assistance from a short and clear account of the various parts of the body, to which the learner may refer when his teacher is absent, or when alone he meditates on the subject of his labours." The first volume contains questions, as to the name, nature, situation, and uses, of the different parts of the human body. The second volume contains answers to those questions.

Whatever tends to facilitate the progress of students has a favourable aspect on science, and that mode of teaching which one may despise, may prove beneficial to others. We should have liked it as well, if the mention of "examination

at Surgeons Hall" had been omitted. The idea may be perverted to purposes, which most certainly could never enter into the contemplation of the compiler.

*Introduction au Lecteur Français, ou Recueil de Pièces choisies, &c.* Introduction to the *Lecteur Français*, or Collection of selected Pieces with an Explanation in English of the idiomatical and difficult Phrases. By Mr. Lindley Murray, 12mo.

MR. Murray's publications on English grammar have met with considerable success, and we acknowledge their merit with pleasure; but, it very seldom happens, that the same person is equally master of two languages. His critical skill in one may be highly commendable, while in the other it is but moderate. And if Mr. M. should prove to be in our opinion a better Englishman than Frenchman, let him accept the compliment implied, for a compliment it certainly is to a native of America.

We shall not follow exactly the division Mr. M. has adopted in this work; but shall first criticise his choice of selected pieces. And here we might ask, whether the French classical writers were so much exhausted, in contributing to the *Lecteur Français*, that nothing could be gleaned from them, to form this introduction? Rollin, indeed, has furnished a few articles, Berquin one, and Mde. De Genlis, some of doubtful merit; but, the rest is mostly selected from obscure, or forgotten publications, and compiled from compilations of anecdotes already stale. Who would borrow from Pluche, when he might choose from Buffon? Is L'Abbé Proyart a substitute for Fenelon? Could nothing be found in *Emile* superior to Bernardin de St. Pierre? *la Vie des Enfants célèbres, Lectures graduées?* &c. Fables too, are introduced in this collection; but, if fables we must have, at least, let us have the best.

To bring M. Lafite's productions into notice is much against the real interest of a work like the present. We are also unable to account for the strange attempt of translating into tame prose, the imitable fables of Lafontaine. They have lost by this operation their élégant simplicity, and are by so much the less worthy of being proposed, as fit models for the imitation of youth. Instances of incorrect and ungrammatical language, occur

even in the *select* phrases which begin the introduction, *ex. g. p. 3.* "Il est noble de savoir reconnaître ses fautes, &c. mais il est *plus beau*," &c.—There cannot be in French, nor we believe in any language, a degree of comparison between different adjectives.

*Ibid.* "Le travail... tue l'ennui, le dégoût," this is not French.—The French say, *je tue le temps, l'ennui me tue*; "tuer le dégoût" is barbarous.

P. 9, "Un seigneur de la cour voyant un petit prince bêcher son *jardinet*, au point que les gouttes de sueur lui decoulaient du front, *lui* dit : Monseigneur, vous êtes bien bon de vous tourmenter ainsi ! Que ne parlez-vous ? Un jardinier vous fera cette besogne *d'un tour de main*."—This is down right vulgar. *Jardinet* may have been tolerated in the burlesque style, but it belongs properly to the Gascon dialect, as does, indeed, the whole paragraph.

We now come to Mr. Murray's explanations of the idiomatical and difficult phrases, and in these we are sorry he has not been more successful. A few examples may justify our opinion. P. 179, "Lucie a huit ans, elle n'est pas jolie ; mais elle a tant de grâces que sa figure même plaît généralement," this Mr. M. translates thus: Lucy is eight years old . . . . *she has so many agreeable qualities, that even her person is generally admired.* Whereas the sense is: "Lucy is not pretty, but she is *so graceful* that even her *face* is generally admired." P. 137, "plus impertinent que *fin*," more impertinent than *sensible* (cunning); p. 190, "exécute sur tous les *tons*," performs all kinds of *tunes* (performs in all *keys*); p. 218, "d'une *valeur* et d'une *probité* reconnue," of acknowledged *worth*, and integrity.—The French word *valeur*, when attributed to a man, never means *worth*, but *bravery*, &c. &c.

We have purposely omitted pointing out the obvious insufficiency of Mr. M.'s rules and observations to assist in understanding and translating the French language. But we must enter our protest against the first: that, "the order in which words are placed in sentences is the same in French as in English." We really believe the contrary is nearer the truth; and that whoever will adopt this rule, even with the numerous exceptions Mr. M. has given, will produce translations, if literal, yet uncouth, and teeming with gallicisms.

*Jugement sur Buonaparté, adressé par un Militaire à la Nation Française et à l'Europe.* Judgment on Bonaparte, addressed by a military Man to the French Nation and to Europe.

We have been favoured with a sight of this pamphlet, which we understand is the production of General Dumouriez. The reputation of the writer, and the superior interest of the subject, will account for our dwelling on this publication, considerably more than its size should have otherwise warranted.—We beg our readers' attention to the development of the Corsican's plans, as it will explain Talleyrand's phrase in the late negociation, *beaucoup se prépare, mais rien n'est fait ! ! !*—Vide Panorama, Vol. II. pp. 113, 122.

If, says the General, we judge Bonaparte by his successes, he is a great man; if we divest them of what properly belongs to fortune, he is a lucky adventurer, whose conduct both military and political is heedless, eccentric, rash, and whose false and imprudent conceptions ought to have produced the most fatal consequences from his very first enterprizes.

From crime to crime, and from fault to fault, Bonaparte has successively risen to the utmost height of power and glory. He has been successfully daring because the continent of Europe was ripe for the revolution he has effected in it. No cabinet has been found sufficiently strong to stop his machiavellism, nor has he encountered any General able by his talents to oppose resistance to his arms: all the powers of the continent have furnished materials to raise the stupendous pile, upon which rests the colossus, and his career has been brilliant, but easy.

We coincide in this opinion with Gen. D. who proceeds afterwards to examine what Bonaparte *should* or *might* have done, to deserve from his contemporaries, and from posterity the appellation of a truly great man. No man sure in ancient or modern times, had ever the proud distinction placed unexpectedly so near his reach by the caprices of fortune; but his groveling soul, a prey to petty passions and to vulgar ambition, cannot be roused by virtue to a sense of true heroism. Vain without pride, obstinate without steadiness, always hurried by his violent temper, he cannot choose even after reflection the safe and honourable path which leads to lasting glory: in his politics he is heedless, false,

and indiscreet ; his whole science of government lies in despotism, injustice, and violence ; he neither knows law, nor finances, nor commerce ;—profusion, rapine and destruction, in these alone he is eminent.

There remains then, says the General, his military talent ; but even this boasted talent, so lucky till the year 1807, may be contested him. None of his victories has been the result of military science : he would have lost every one of his battles if the Generals opposed to him had known how to avail themselves of his temerity. His expedition to Egypt, his dash into Syria, his war in St. Domingo : the disposal of his fleet are instances of false plans or bad management. The English are the only people who previous to 1807, have given him a few lessons.

We shall not here scrutinize the varied periods of his celebrity ; remarks on his conduct in the years 1805, 1806, and 1807, will be sufficient to reduce him to his true standard.

We shall enter into some details only on the three last wars of Bonaparte ; that of 1805 against the Emperor of Austria ; that of 1806 against Prussia ; that of the latter end of 1806 and 1807 against the Emperor of Russia.

From a military review of the operations of the contending armies in the wars with Prussia and Austria, General Dumouriez maintains, with appearance of truth, that Buonaparte solely owed his successes to the incapacity of his ennemis and to the well known corruption\* of the Prussian ministers. " It was a trial of errors," and in this inglorious warfare between imprudence and pusillanimity, fortune, as usual, favoured the most daring. We regret that our limits do not allow us to follow the General in his reasonings ; we hasten with him to the present scene of action, and there we shall see unfolded those wild and gigantic plans, which

\* Nor was this applicable alone to Prussia. Dr. Beatty relates in his *Narrative of the Death of Lord Nelson*, that, " on the thirteenth of October (1805) the Agamemnon, Sir E. Berry, joined the fleet ; by this ship his Lordship received some news-papers from England, one of which contained a paragraph stating that General Mack was about to be appointed to the command of the Austrian armies in Germany. On reading this, his Lordship made the following observation :— " I know General Mack too well. He sold the King of Naples ; and if he is now entrusted with an important command, he will certainly betray the Austrian monarch." — The gallant Nelson thus spoke on the 13th, and Ulm was delivered to Bonaparte on the 22d, by Mack !!!

the intoxication of victory suggested to Bonaparte after the battle of Jena.

In two campaigns Bonaparte had humbled Austria and annihilated Prussia. In his situation a wise conqueror (if such can exist) would have stopped on the Oder, at least till spring, and would have employed the winter in new modelling Germany, in making sure of the submission of Austria, and of that of his humble vassals the ephemeral sovereigns of the confederation of the Rhine lately lashed to his car : he would have divided his conquests among his followers ; he would have completed the subjugation of the fortresses of Silesia ; he would likewise have taken Dantzig and Colberg before the arrival of the Russians, and wrested Stralsund from the King of Sweden.....above all, he would have kept his further plans secret, the better to prepare for their execution.....

These further plans deserve to be here unfolded ; their gigantic magnitude has astonished and frightened Europe instead of uniting it, to prevent their being realized..... to annihilate the empire of Russia, or to force the emperor Alexander to make a degrading peace, which would have been immediately followed by a treaty of alliance, the price and basis of which would have been the dissolution of the Turkish empire and its partition between France, Russia, and Austria ; peace would then have been offered to England on condition she would give up Malta, the Cape of Good Hope, and her conquests in both Indies, and allow the liberty of flags. On the rejection of these propositions, which was not doubtful ; to engage the whole of the continent in a naval war against the *tyrants of the sea* under the specious pretext of securing the liberty of flags and of commerce. Should he have succeeded in this, Bonaparte would have found himself at the head of a *holy* league, and uniting the maritime forces of the three northern powers to his other naval resources, would have taken up with more activity his favourite plan of invasion, which till now has been only chimerical, but which would then have acquired some reality from this crusade.

It was necessary first, to gain or to intimidate Russia by the recent example of the rapid downfall of Prussia, or to wage with that power a war of extermination, to annihilate it and to drive it back into Asia.

As the negotiation failed, and as the Emperor Alexander far from suffering himself to be either intimidated or deceived, and taking heed from the recent treaty with d'Oubril, not only resolved upon war himself, but even prevented the King of Prussia from making peace, and as no alternative remained to Bonaparte, he has adopted, with his characteristic thoughtless precipitation that part of his plan which went to the annihilation of a power who dared to resist him and opposed the execution of his further intentions.....

His means of aggression were—first the re-establishment of the kingdom of Poland.

2d. A declaration of war by Turkey.

3d. An attack on Georgia, the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea, by the Persians.

4th. A treaty with the King of Sweden ; to whom he would have restored and guaranteed, Prussian Pomerania, Livonia, Ingria, Finland, in short all the shores, south, east, and north of the Baltic. This would have made Sweden a great power, and would have reduced the Empire of Russia to that state of weakness and obscurity from which it has emerged by the genius of Peter I.

5th. Bonaparte always trusting to his invincible fortune, and above all to his numerous battalions, had reserved for himself what he thought an easy task, whose success was certain, to give the Russians a decisive battle, and to dictate his laws in St. Petersburg.

This plan is vast and specious, it is dazzling by its magnitude, but it cannot bear the test of critical examination ; and plain common sense, is sufficient fully to demonstrate its absurd extravagance.....

*Re-establishment of the Kingdom of Poland* ; to effect this it would have been necessary to shew before hand to the nation the man destined to ascend the throne, and that such a man whether a foreigner or a native should have been acceptable to the Poles from his rank or his personal qualifications.....It was necessary to re-establish that kingdom, that the whole nation should join in an insurrection. The disasters of the king of Prussia might induce the inhabitants of that part of Poland which he ruled to rise in rebellion, and this is what has actually happened. And yet the insurrection has been partial even in that part of Poland ; a few thousand men only have come forward on the bombastic proclamation of the emigrant Dambrowski, who had not sufficient weight in his country to produce a general sensation.

That part of Poland belonging to Russia has shewn no disposition to rise : on the contrary, men able to carry arms have flocked to the standard, and the magazines have been filled by the voluntary contributions of landlords and farmers. To excite an insurrection in that part of the country, it was previously necessary to drive from it the Russian armies, the minds of the people should also have been prepared before hand, and dark negotiations should have opened the way by tampering with their fidelity. Bonaparte ought not then to have announced an insurrection before he had obtained great successes, since successes alone could produce it.

The Cabinet at Vienna watching with the utmost vigilance that part of Poland belonging to Austria, and anxiously jealous of that precious possession, could never have been induced to exchange it for Silesia.

The General grounds the refusal of Austria on the precariousness of the possession of Silesia in case Buonaparte should meet with any reverse or accident, and the just apprehension of seeing her northern frontier open to the arms, and to the corruptive influence of a vassal of Bonaparte, by the cession of Gallicia. The only way for the French chief to bring Austria to his terms, was, as the author maintains, to follow after the battle of Jena the conduct he pursued before, and then to frighten Austria into compliance by approaching the frontiers of Moravia and Bohemia. But once the war begun in Poland, this part of his plan becomes impracticable ; Austria waited the result. Thus has the re-establishment of the throne of Poland failed, by the heedless phrenetic precipitation of Bonaparte, who has only succeeded in gathering round him a few thousand rebellious wretches who impede the motions of his army, whom he is forced to arm, feed, clothe, and pay, who will follow him in his retreat, and remain at his charge, till he can send them to find a grave in some colonial expedition, like the former Polish legion sent to St. Domingo.

*Diversion by Turkey.* The probable failure of this part of Bonaparte's plans, makes it useless for us to follow Gen. Dumouriez, who has the merit of anticipating it. The third branch of this romantic conception is less known, and we shall give it in the General's own words.

*Diversion from Persia.* Bonaparte is surrounded only by flatterers who mislead his mind (literally *sa pensée*, a quaint favourite expression of his). One Jaubert has persuaded him that he might unite all Persia and induce it to hurl destruction on Russia. Did he not know, or did he hide from his master, that Persia is torn by a dozen competitors whom nothing can unite, that these twenty years the Persians have given way before small Russian corps, that if the Emperor of Russia, unwilling to withdraw his armies from Poland, will be satisfied, at least for some time, to maintain a defensive war between the Black and the Caspian Seas, his line of defence is so concentrated, that were all the Persians united, which is morally impossible, they would be utterly unable to penetrate into Georgia ? And such are the enemies which Bonaparte means to excite against Russia ! Such is the diversion he means to operate ! Nothing can equal the madness of this part of his plan, except the weakness of Persia.

These views of Buonaparte on Persia, fully exemplify what we have said on a former occasion, of the modern science of politics, in which the only rule and guide, is—the coloured windings of a map.\* This sublime conception of an *immortal* genius bears a strong affinity to the waking dreams of a boy, lately initiated in geography and ancient history; it puts us in mind of those lines of *Lafontaine*,

“Quand je suis seul, je fais au plus brave défi;  
“Je m'égare, je vais *détriner le Sophi.*”†

What follows had a more serious and mischievous tendency, like all the events of the French revolution, in which horror has been uniformly blended with ridicule.

*Seduction of the King of Sweden.*—The profound immorality of Buonaparte is well known, but he has just now proved that it even darkens his understanding. The King of Sweden is justly celebrated for his transcendent qualities, for his inflexible steadiness, and above all, for a probity equally noble and scrupulous. Buonaparte judging of that sovereign's soul by his own, prepared with fulsome flattery, the hint he got conveyed to him of an alliance between them, on the King of Sweden accepting the restitution of the provinces wrested from the kings his predecessors. By this, he would have engaged Sweden in a war with Russia, much more dangerous to this last power, than that he was himself going to wage against it. The noble mind of the King of Sweden has been shocked by those insulting propositions, he has rejected them with the contempt they deserve, and this new proof of this monarch's greatness of soul, while it insures him the admiration of his contemporaries, the gratitude of Russia, and the esteem of England, ought to engage these powers to draw closer the ties, by which they are united to him in the common cause; they should invest him with their entire confidence, and furnish him with that pecuniary assistance necessary to renew the glorious achievements of Gustavus Adolphus and his invincible legions. His age, his courage, his vigour, the example of the hero whose name he bears, point out the career he is to run. Till now he has been prevented from following the noble impulse by narrow, timid politics, which ministers have too much indulged; a war like this requires enthusiasm in them, that they may be able to communicate it to a nation.

\* Vide Panorama, Vol. I. p. 723.

† The bravest heroes I defy,—alone;—

And *Kurl*, is thought, the *Sophy* from his *throne.*

This branch of Buonaparte's plan was ill calculated like the former ones, it covers him with shame, and will soon turn against him.

*Operations of Buonaparte in Poland.*—This fifth branch of his plan against Russia ought to have been carried into execution only in case the others had succeeded; if this conqueror could have made use of common sense, he would have seen, that alone, and by itself, it would expose him too much, and too far from his empire; that he was leaving behind him Germany half revolted and in a political confusion, which might deprive him of all assistance and even of a retreat in case of misfortune. That the King of Sweden remaining master of Stralsund and of the Island of Rügen, might collect there an army by means of a treaty of subsidy with England, carry an offensive war into Lower Germany, drive his thinly scattered troops, and calling round him the insurgents from every part, form a great army in his rear, and cut off his communications with France..... He wanted to decide the fate of Russia in a single general engagement; but had he been victorious, what would have happened? he had still 200 leagues, to go, in an inclement season; large rivers to cross, whose passages would have been contested, and new armies to encounter.

Here follows a military review of Buonaparte's operations in Poland, which the General pronounces to be every one of them contrary to the rules of art, with the solitary exception of the fortifying of Praga. Buonaparte soon however abandoned it, with his usual unsteadiness, impelled by his ferocious hatred against the Queen of Prussia, who had taken refuge in Königsberg, where he wanted to follow her, to deprive her, as he said, of *her last shift.* Despicable, unmanly wretch! and such is the man," exclaims the General, "whom a part of Europe still affects to respect."

In this march he crosses the Bug and the Narew, and as he was then bent on fortifying, he erects *têtes de pont* and lines to cover them on these two rivers. This was at least an useless work if he were victorious, and a dangerous retreat if unsuccessful. The result of the battle of Pultusk, between a division of the Russian army and the whole of the French forces, is too well known to need any comment. In recompense for the talent and bravery he displayed on that trying occasion, General Benigsen was intrusted with the chief command of the Russian armies, and proved that he deserved that honour by his

victory at Mohringen, and by his masterly retreat before a superior enemy, whom he succeeded in drawing into an unfavourable position, at Eylau, where he defeated him, with the loss of his best officers and the flower of his soldiers.

General Dumouriez by a chain of military reasonings, shews the palpable falsity of the French bulletins on those occasions, and draws from the same source a gloomy and we trust a faithful picture of the dangers which threaten the devoted army which Bonaparte commands; he thinks that the principal storm will burst from Stralsund, and indulges a hope that the moment is not far off when Europe will be freed from its most ignominious bondage.

This pamphlet, to which we refer our readers, does honour to the sagacity of the gallant General; it concludes with an appeal to the French nation, the most interested no doubt in the general deliverance,—but

Eh! que faire au milieu de ce peuple abattu?

#### EXCERPTA.

From Mr. Wilkinson's Account of the Navigation and Commerce of the Black Sea, collected from original Sources.

**Preface.**—The following sheets are compiled from the observations of a great French speculator, published in 1805; also from Storch's "Picture of Russia," a work replete with accurate information and statistical knowledge. Having endeavoured, as much as possible, to avoid repeating what Mr. Eton\* has already published on the Commerce and Navigation of the Black Sea, this work may be considered as an interesting supplement to his pamphlet. It contains commercial and nautical details, which that gentleman has not communicated. Since Malta has been added to our possessions, and the garrison is supplied with corn from the southern provinces of Russia, a new branch of commerce has presented itself to the enterprising spirit of British merchants. Though the trade be yet in its infancy, the reader will easily perceive, that there is ample room for the introduction of many of our manufactures. This has taken place already; four vessels cleared out of London last year for Odessa only, laden with lead for the Russian government. Should the differences, which have lately arisen between our Court and the Porte, be amicably adjusted, there is no doubt, but that the British flag will share all those advantages which France has long sought to monopolize in the Black Sea."

\* Vide Panorama, Vol. I. p. 105.

After the expulsion of the Genoese in 1476, until the treaty of Kainardgy in 1774, the Turks alone traded in the Black Sea. They considered it as their own exclusive dominion; and not without reason, as all the adjacent countries belonged to them. To the north lies the Crimea, and the coasts of Little Tartary on the sea of Asov; to the east those of Kuban on the same sea, with Circassia, Abasa, Mingrelia, and the coast of Lazia: to the south Asia Minor; and to the west Romelia, Bulgaria, Dobrudzia, Wallachia, Moldavia, and Bessarabia.

These several provinces supplied Constantinople with almost every necessary article of consumption; so as, during the navigable season, to cover the Black Sea with an immense number of vessels, mostly of small burden.

From the Crimea great quantities of wool, dried and fresh-tanned leather, wax, hare-skins, butter, honey, caviar, salt, barley, and wheat, &c.

From the countries situated to the north of the sea of Asov, many of the productions of Russia; such as iron, linen, hemp, caviar, cordage, skins, tallow, corn, &c.

From Circassia, by the port of Taman, wool, hides, caviar, honey, wax, sheep, and other skins, with various articles peculiar to the Turks.

From Abasa and Mingrelia, ship-timber, wax, honey, and a great quantity of box-wood.

From the coast of Lazia, by the ports of Rize, Trebisond, Kiresoum, and Cerisont, linen, thread, wax, hemp, ox and buffalo skins, dried fruits; a little silk, and abundance of copper.

From Natolia, by the ports of Ounia, Guenze, Sinope, Eneboli or Amasrch, hemp, thread, ox and buffalo skins, dried fruits, tar, all sorts of ship and other timber, particularly articles for men of war.

From Romelia, Bulgaria, and Dobrudzia, by the ports of Warna, Bourgaz, Roudsjouk, and Galaz, corn, rice, wax, honey, ox and buffalo skins, tallow, tobacco, iron, hare-skins, and seeds for a yellow dye.

From Wallachia, by Guiorhow, and Roudsjouk, situated on the Danube, wax, honey, leather, wool, butter, tallow, hemp, tobacco, hare-skins, and all kinds of corn.

From Moldavia, by Galaz, on the Danube, the same articles as from Wallachia; besides which, masts, ship-timber, and tar.

From Bessarabia, now called Budjace, by the ports of Akkerman, and Otschakov, wool, ox and horse skins, chagreen-cases, wax, honey, and abundance of corn.

Such were the articles which supplied Constantinople, from the ports of the Black Sea, and the sea of Asov; whence those ports

received in return whatever was requisite for the consumption of the adjacent provinces; in part, the produce of the Ottoman empire; and the remainder imported from France, Italy, England, Holland, Germany, and other nations. The balance was in favor of the countries situated on the Black Sea, which they received from Constantinople, in Turkish or foreign coin.

From 1774 to 1781, the commerce of Constantinople had become more extensive in the two seas in question, from more considerable importations of Russian articles, and from an increased demand for those of the Archipelago, especially fresh and dried fruits; which extension was occasioned by direct communications with the ports of Taganrog, and Cherson, particularly the former. Nearly the whole was carried on under the Turkish flag, very few Russians, till that period, being concerned in the trade.

The free communication which has, of late years, taken place between those seas and the Mediterranean, through the strait of Constantinople, forms a remarkable epoch in modern history; and so extensive has been the consequent increase of commerce, in those regions, that it employed nine hundred vessels, from various nations, in 1803.

It is observed, however, by the French author from whom these particulars are extracted, that, "from the want of proper nautical and mercantile information, relative to seas and countries hitherto so little known, most of the speculations have proved unproductive. To guard against similar failures, and as an object of great interest to the mercantile world, he has been induced to publish the result of his experience and observations, during the formation of establishments at Cherson, and various adjacent quarters; as also during his journeys through Russia and Poland, for the express purpose of collecting information on all subjects connected with the trade in which he was extensively engaged."

From the whole, it will be obvious, that the French attach a strong national interest to the commerce in question; especially, as they expect to derive it from a supply of such naval stores as they could, hitherto, obtain, only through the more circuitous and hazardous channel of the Baltic.

In this point of view, as well as in several others, the subject becomes highly interesting to the British nation.

*Summary Statement of the Trade of the different Ports in the Black Sea.*

Of the 21 harbours and seaports, of the Black Sea, 11 only can be considered as

really places of trade. The following list is arranged according to the extent of their commerce, from 1793 to 1797:

|                      | <i>Roubles.</i> |
|----------------------|-----------------|
| Taganrog . . . .     | 857,920         |
| Eupatoria . . . .    | 277,987         |
| Otschakov . . . .    | 267,999         |
| Odessa . . . .       | 150,085         |
| Theodosia . . . .    | 89,541          |
| Cherson . . . .      | 69,702          |
| Sebastopolis . . . . | 65,609          |
| Nikolajev . . . .    | 53,336          |
| Kertsch . . . .      | 18,565          |
| Jenicale . . . .     | 14,211          |
| Ovidiopolis . . . .  | 9,826           |

Thus Taganrog remains, notwithstanding its situation in the extreme north-eastern corner of the sea of Azov, the most important staple in that quarter. This is easily explained when we consider, that by means of the Don, the Donez, the Volga, and other rivers, Taganrog communicates with the most fruitful and cheapest parts of the empire.

The Russian trade in the Black Sea is, generally speaking, still so modern, that it is worth while to be more circumstantial in shewing its former and present state, than in regard to others. The ensuing table gives, not only the total amount in the last century, but *data* also of comparison at different periods.

|                              | 1776—1777.      | 1779—1780.      |
|------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
|                              | <i>Roubles.</i> | <i>Roubles.</i> |
| Imports . . . .              | 85,194          | 98,058          |
| Exports . . . .              | 305,970         | 145,938         |
| Total . . . .                | 391,164         | 243,996         |
| Surplus in favour of exports | 220,776         | 47,880          |
| Ships entered in . . .       | 29              | —               |
| Cleared out . . . .          | —               | —               |
|                              | 1785—1786.      | 1793—1797.      |
|                              | <i>Roubles.</i> | <i>Roubles.</i> |
| Imports . . . .              | 483,104         | 718,198         |
| Exports . . . .              | 627,464         | 1,156,583       |
| Total . . . .                | 1,110,568       | 1,874,781       |
| Surplus in favour of exports | 144,360         | 438,385         |
| Ships entered in . . .       | 160             | 471             |
| Cleared out . . . .          | —               | 417             |

This simple comparison represents the state of commerce and navigation so clearly, that no further explanation is requisite.

It appears from this statement, that while a Russian fleet commands the Black Sea, and the Bosphorus, and a British fleet commands the Archipelago and the Dardanelles, that, not only the commerce of Constantinople must be suspended, but that a great portion of necessary supplies for that city are effectually withheld from it.

DESCRIPTION OF THE APPROACHES TO CONSTANTINOPLE, BY WATER, FROM THE ARCHIPELAGO.

PART II.—*Of the Dardanelles.*

[Vide Panorama, Vol. II. p. 112.]

The strait of the Dardanelles, as the whole passage is usually called, unites the Archipelago with the little sea of Marmora. It is about twelve leagues in length. It separates Europe from Asia; but is in some places not wider than 3 or 400 fathoms. In other places it is 1500 or 2000 fathoms. At what may be considered as the mouth of it, next the Archipelago, are two forts on the opposite shores, distant about 1500 fathoms; so that they can hardly be said to protect the passage. But, about three leagues within the strait is a kind of promontory, projecting into the passage, and narrowing it to about 400 fathoms. On each side of this narrow stands a castle. These are the Dardanelles: their cannon completely command the opposite shores: and very heavy pieces are mounted in them.—These were, for a long time, the only defences of Constantinople by water. Above this narrow the passage winds, and shortly forms another constriction, hardly so wide as the former. This is also now defended by forts. This being passed, the strait widens; but is again contracted before it enters the sea of Marmora, which is of considerable width, and at the bottom of which Constantinople is situated, without any other impediment to the approach of vessels.

It may easily be conceived that the batteries and forts mentioned, if well served, would be sufficient to defend a passage, which whatever ship should attempt to force it would be exposed to their fire when advancing, when along-side, and when passed; in fact, in all directions: nevertheless, we must add the mention of another impediment of the greatest consideration, to those who attempt to enter from the Archipelago. For the waters of the Black Sea pouring through this narrow gullet into the Mediterranean, form a current so powerful, and so steady, that ships, without a very favourable wind, can hardly stem it with all their sails set. And even with the wind in their favour, the pilotage requires skilful management. This is a grand obstacle to the navigation of this strait, as the currents are sometimes truly violent. The direction of these currents must regulate the steerage of the vessel sailing against them; but this inevitably exposes the vessel to the fire of the forts. And it needs no remark, that a vessel with all her sails set is an object not easily missed in such a contracted space.

The Dardanelles are ancient fortifications; but the batteries on the headland called the Barber's Point, and those on the opposite shore, were constructed by Baron de Tott, in

the year 1770. He also built others on another headland, called the Mill Point, nearer to the Dardanelles, on the European shore. These were visited and augmented by Major (now Sir Charles) Holloway and Major Hope, the engineers, who accompanied General Kehler on the mission sent to assist the Turks, against the French when they were in possession of Egypt. Having been favoured with the perusal of private journals kept during the whole of that mission, we have had an opportunity of knowing that the British officers did not think de Tott's constructions were very capital works; for they made several alterations in them, enlarged them, and added very considerably to their strength and importance. They mounted a number of heavy guns, and directed a general course of repairs; which, after all, however, were only executed *à la Turque*. The Baron, indeed, tells us that he made his batteries twenty-two feet thick: but he also informs us that the plague sometimes carried off twenty of his labourers in a day—is it surprising that his works were imperfectly executed? The battery at Mill Point was finished by a private Turk, whose patriotic spirit considered his expences and labour as a work of merit.—The whole of the works opposed to an enemy an uninterrupted fire for the entire space of seven leagues!

The Baron gives the following account of a part of the defences:—

On the side of the castle the Turks had placed an enormous piece of ordnance, which would carry a marble ball of eleven hundred pounds weight. This piece, cast in brass, in the reign of Amurath, was composed of two parts, joined together by a screw, where the charge is contained, after the manner of an English pistol. It may be supposed that, as its breech rested against a massy stone work, it had been placed, by the means of large levers, under a small arch, which served as an embrasure. I could not make use of this enormous cannon in the outworks; and, as they were disposed in such a manner as to prevent its being fired, the Turks murmured at my paying so little regard to a piece of artillery, which, no doubt, had not its equal in the universe.

The Pacha made some remonstrances to me on that head. He agreed, with me, that the difficulty of charging it would not allow, in case of an attack, to fire it more than once; but, he urged this single discharge would be so destructive, and reach so far, that no one entertained a doubt but it would be, alone, sufficient to destroy the whole fleet of the enemy. It was easier for me to give way to this prejudice than overthrow it, and, without changing my plan of defence, I could, by cutting through the epaulement, in the direction of this piece, allow it room to be fired: but I was willing first to judge of its effect.

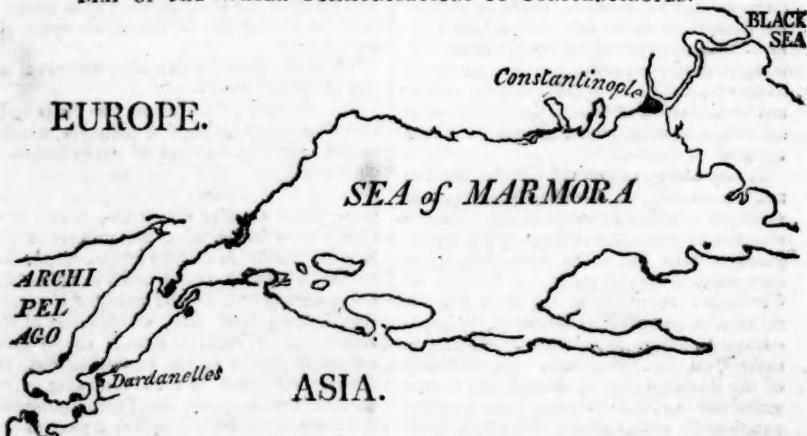
The crowd about me trembled at this proposal; and the oldest among them asserted, there was a tradition that this piece, which had never yet been discharged, would occasion such a shock, as must overturn the castle and the city. It was, indeed, possible it might shake some stones out of the wall, but I assured them they would not be regretted by the Grand Seignior; and that the direction of this piece would not allow me to imagine the city would suffer by the explosion.

Never, certainly, had any cannon so formidable a reputation. Friends and enemies were alike to suffer from its fury. A month had now elapsed since it was determined to load this piece of artillery, which required no less than three hundred and thirty pounds weight of powder; and I sent to the head engineer to prepare priming. All who heard me give this order immediately disappeared, to avoid the predicted danger. The Pacha himself was about to retreat, and it was with the utmost difficulty I persuaded him that he ran no risk, in a small Kiosk, near the corner of the castle; from whence he might, notwithstanding, observe the effects of the ball.

Having succeeded in this, nothing remained but to inspire the engineer with courage; who, though he was the only one who had not fled, shewed no great resolution in the remonstrances he made to excite my pity; I, at last, rather silenced than animated him, by promising to expose myself to the same danger. I took my station on the stone-work, behind the cannon, and felt a shock like that of an earthquake. At the distance of three hundred fathoms I saw the ball divide into three pieces, and these fragments of a rock crossed the strait, rebounded on the opposite mountain, and left the surface of the sea all in a foam through the whole breadth of the channel. This experiment, by dissipating the chimerical fears of the people, the Pacha, and the engineers, proved to me likewise the terrible effects of such a ball; and I cut through the epaulette in the direction of the piece.

We have already remarked, that a fleet stationed at the mouth of the Dardanelles would effectually cut off from Constantinople those supplies which it is accustomed to receive from the Levant: such as corn, rice, &c. &c.

MAP OF THE WATER COMMUNICATIONS TO CONSTANTINOPLE.



The defences of the Dardanelles, consist of forts, in pairs; the situations of which are marked by black plans in this map. The first pair is at the mouth; on the European side, the fort of *Scutari Kalesi*; on the Asiatic side, the Sand Castle, *Koun Kalesi*: both these were built by Baron de Tott.

A second pair of forts, or rather batteries, are constructed to defend a very narrow part of this strait.

The third pair of forts are the Castles of the Dardanelles, usually called the Old Castles; and distinguished as being the Dardanelles of Europe, or Dardanelles of Asia.

Where the strait, after widening, shews another narrow passage, are two forts, also: that on the European side is adjacent to the village of Gallipoli, and commands the best, if not the only, anchorage in the passage.

The Dardanelles of Asia, are called by the Turks, *Soultaine Kalesi*. The little town which adjoins this castle is almost entirely peopled by Jews, who to the profits of an extensive commerce unite also those of a very lucrative commission, by rendering themselves necessary to the vessels of every nation which are obliged to stop here, in order to be visited, and to produce their fannas,

Above the *Soultanie Kalissi* is a promontory which quits almost the coast of Asia, projects into the canal, and seems to close this entry of it towards the sea of Marmora. The Turks call it *Nagara Bouoad*. Some ruins are still visible on it, which I suppose must be those of the ancient Abydus, since the distance between the Barber's Point and *Nagara* is exactly that assigned by Strabo to the interval between *Dardanus* and *Abydus*.

Opposite Abydus, on the European coast, is *Ak Bachi Liman* (port of the white head), the ancient *Sestus*. Strabo relates that Xerxes threw a bridge across the *Hellespont* from between *Sestus* and *Abydus*, for the passage of his army. One end of this bridge abutted on the shore above *Abydus*, towards the *Propontis*, the other below *Sestus*, towards the *Egean Sea*.

The courageous enterprise of *Leander*, which gave occasion to the charming poem of *Museus*, and has furnished, during many ages, a subject to the poetical talents of heroic authors, has in it nothing wonderful to the inhabitants of the *Dardanelles*. They have seen, but lately, a young Jew cross this strait in the very same place and manner, to obtain the hand of his mistress of the same nation, who had consented to marry him on those terms.

Strabo says that the *Cynoséne*, or tomb of *Hecuba*, was opposite the mouth of the *Rhodius*, on the opposite bank of the *Hellespont*: it occupied, without doubt, the spot where now stands the European castle, a castle called by the Turks *Kelidir Bahur* (the padlock of the sea); as *Euripides* formerly called the *Bosphorus*, the key of the *Pontus Euxinus*.

One of the two promontories which terminate the Thracian *Chersonesus*, and forms one side of the *Hellespont*, still retains the name of *Helles*, or *Eles Bouroun* (Cape *Eles*); not far from it is the city of *Eleus*.

Not far from the mouth of the *Dardanelles* is the small island of *Tenedos*, above which is good anchorage for large ships. Any fleet riding here has the command of the *Straits*. From this station a part of the British fleet moved to the mouth of the strait, and forced a passage, Feb. 19, into the sea of *Marmora*, particulars of which exploit are given in another part of the present number. A second division of the fleet remained in its station; it is said, a Russian squadron has joined it.

The depth of water in the *Propontis* diminishes gradually, as appears from the lakes a little south of *Constantinople*, now called *Kutchuk Tcheknodge* (little bridge), and *Borrou Tcheknodge* (great bridge), which formerly were gulfs of the *Propontis*: the same is observed in the *Euxine*. The island of *Cyzicus* is now a peninsula, and the neck of which unites it to the main land is inhabited. The lake of *Nicaea*, also, proves the fact.

## DIDASCALIA.

DRURY-LANE.—During the Easter holidays the managers of this theatre presented their young friends with an exhibition of a terrific nature, in which morality was put to defiance, and literature disgraced: we allude to the representation of the *Wood Daemon*, or *The Clock has Struck*, written by the author of the *tragi-comic-operatic thing* called the *Castle Spectre*. All that we could perceive in this piece is a horrid display of disgusting improbabilities—set off by fine scenery and spectacle, for the purpose of debasing rather than instructing human nature—an idea which has been a leading feature of this author's productions.

On Thursday, the 26th March, Mr. *Cherry*, of Drury-lane Theatre, presented to the public a new comedy, called *A Day in London*, which, by the assistance of a house well stored with friends, was enabled to get through a first representation, but was too frivolous a composition to bear many repetitions. The plot of the piece is too confined to attempt a description of the fable. The characters are numerous, and indiscriminately taken from the *School for Scandal*, the *Rivals*, and other favourite plays, which Mr. C. has jumbled together, and, according to Puff's description in the “Critic,” served as gypsies do stolen children, disfigured them to make them pass for his own. The author has since shewn a becoming modesty, in withdrawing his piece from the stage.

COVENT-GARDEN.—Friday, April 10, a new musical after-piece, entitled *Whistle for it*, written by the Hon. Mr. *Lambe*, for the *Abercorn* theatricals, was translated from *Stammore Priory* to this theatre, to undergo the ordeal of public opinion. The story, which is taken from *Gil Blas*, consists of Count *Harlowitz* being made prisoner by a banditti, and conducted to their subterraneous retreat, where he discovers his lost mistress also; after a few trifling incidents, the blowing of a whistle by one of the banditti is the cause of their liberation. Although the dialogue of this little piece reflects some credit on the honourable author, yet the want of interest, and the unpopularity of the music, prevented it from receiving that success the visitors of the Priory had fondly predicted.

Thursday, April 16, was presented at this theatre, in consequence of the success of *Mother Goose*, a *ballet d'action*, entitled the *Ogre and Little Thumb*, or *The Seven League Boots*, which totally failed of success, although it possesses some pretty music,

and beautiful scenery; but the plot was so poor and uninteresting, that even children could not be pleased with it. Notwithstanding, the audience, which was very numerous, were almost unanimously against such a disgusting exhibition, yet the managers had the modesty to announce, in the true Bartholomew-fair stile, the next morning, that "it was received with loud and continued plaudits by a brilliant and overflowing audience." We ought to inform our readers, that the New River Company was its best support, and its *inundations* have triumphed over the good taste of the audience. We congratulate the managers on their alliance with this thriving company.—The *Spectator* (No. 5) informs us "that there was actually," in his time, "a project of bringing the New River into the house to be employed in *jets-d'eau* and water works." This project, then postponed, is now most happily realized!

#### CONTINENTAL DIDASCALIA.

It should appear from late information that the Continent, no less than ourselves, stands in need of Didascalian superintendance. We mentioned, not long ago, [Vide *Panorama*, Vol. I. p. 203] that Luther had made his appearance on the stage. June 11, 1806, was presented at Berlin *Die Woche der Kraft*.

The drama includes five or six years; its events take place in different parts of Germany: it has not any principal action; it is a mixture of farcical incidents, puns, and quibbles, with the pathos of tragedy, and the spectacle of the melo-drama. Yet, in opposition to all rules, it has become popular; and the Germans have fallen under the lash of the French critics for laughing and crying, against the statutes in that case made and provided.

The subject of the piece is "the Progress of the Reformation." Luther is characterized as an apostle from Heaven: his wife, Catherine de Bora, is not less inspired than Luther, and her affection for him is wrought up to the highest degree of exaltation. As we have not perused this drama, we can give no opinion on its merits: the Catholics, we learn, exclaim against it; the Protestants throng the theatre to see it; and M. Werner, the author, derives celebrity, we suppose, also emolument, from this concusson of opinions.

If the French critics have been offended by "the Progress of the Reformation," and with the stupid German Protestants, who have dared to snigger at the Catholics, the late productions of their Italian associates have not afforded them much consolation. The Italian theatre at Genoa has presented a piece in fifteen acts! the representation of which lasted three whole days consecutive! The first day was occupied with *Henry King* of

Navarre at the Court of France; the second day, *Henry IV. in his Camp, or the Battle of Ivry*; third day, *Henry IV. on the throne*, with his triumphal entry into Paris. The subject is chosen evidently with design to carry favour with the French despots at Genoa. It has, say some of the journals, a resemblance to the ancient mysteries, of which the representation was so popular formerly; to which others add, also to those new *dramatic cycles*, which Schiller and his coadjutors have lately introduced on the German theatre

Whether it be with design to correct the critical taste of Italy, or with other views, not less "beneficial to the human race," we know not: but the fact is, that his Majesty the Emperor and King has, by a special decree, established several troops of French actors for the *improvement* (moral and intellectual), no doubt, of his Italian subjects. One of these troops is appointed to the service of the principal cities of that part of Italy which is united to France; a second troop is ambulatory through the principal cities of the kingdom of Italy. The first company is to reside three months at Turin, three months at Alexandria, three months at Genoa, and two months at Parma; one month is allowed for travelling. The second company will stay four months at Milan, three months at Venice, two months at Bologna, and two months at Brescia; one month is allowed for travelling. Each is to play four times in a week. Madame Raucourt has the appointment.—Comp. *Panorama*, Vol. I. p. 1328.

The fondness of the French for theatrical amusements is not, we persuade ourselves, the sole cause of this institution. The Italians will hereby become more and more imbued with French manners, and what amuses them on the stage will less shock them in real life. The policy is deep, yet obvious. With equal knowledge of human nature, the French sent a company of actors to Egypt,\* while their army was there: the intentions were to relieve the *ennui* of the military, who had no amusement but fighting, being abhorrent to the natives; and to delude the natives by enjoyments into something like a conciliation with the manners and principles of their invaders. The stage had a principal share in effecting the Reformation in England, by exposing the profligacy of the Romish priesthood: Bonaparte, doubtless, expects to render it equally instrumental in facilitating his political projects.

\* This policy was of the same nature as that which induced them to carry a printing-office with them there: they printed a newspaper at Grand Cairo, several numbers of which have been in our possession.

## MEMOIRS OF M. DE LA HARPE.

[Continued from page 106.]

CHAP. II.—*Visit to Ferney.—Tragedies of Pharamond, and Gustavus.—Academic Eloquence.—Pilgrimage to and theatrical mania at Ferney.—Pharsalia.—Marmontel.—Dorat.—Mercurie.—D'Alembert.—Duc de Choiseul.—Suetonius.—Mélanie.—Fenelon.*

Proceeding in his work at Ferney, under the inspection of a man who was so well versed in the means of ensuring success, encouraged by his counsels, and treated by him as his son, it was to be expected that, in such a retirement, the young poet would produce a work of the first effect. Voltaire, however, was not of that opinion. In one of his letters he expresses himself very decidedly, and with his usual vivacity on this subject. “I have now with me,” says he, “the author of Warwick; he is about a tragedy, the subject of which is taken from the history of France: but it is to be apprehended that he will share the fate of the woodcutters, who all expected to receive golden axes, because Mercury had given an axe of this precious metal to a fellow-labourer in exchange for one of iron.”—(Alluding to the Siege of Calais), “Subjects taken from the history of one’s own country,” adds Voltaire, “present almost insuperable difficulties.” The forebodings of Voltaire were shortly realized. Pharamond failed, and the author himself, after having passed as severe a judgment upon it as the public had done, committed it to the flames. The lovers of poetry regretted the loss of some beautiful parts which might have been preserved.

Voltaire did not feel a greater degree of regard for Piron than he did for Crebillon. A few epigrams which proceeded from the author of the *Méromanie*; the prolonged success of that piece, which elevated Piron to a place among the most distinguished poets of the eighteenth century, had excited the hatred and jealousy of a man whose ambition it was to be the first in all the different branches of literature. He advised M. de la Harpe, therefore, to re-write the *Gustavus* of Piron. He had himself endeavoured, some years before, to annihilate, in this manner, the tragedies of Crebillon; and though he succeeded but twice in this kind of struggle, he did not hesitate to expose a young beginner to the disgrace of making an unsuccessful attack on a poet of established reputation. M. de la Harpe was weak enough to be persuaded by such counsel, and his *Gustavus* with difficulty obtained one representation. It possessed some brilliant passages, but the last acts wanted strength and interest; besides, the pre-dilection which had been conceived against

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an attempt that appeared to originate in an unjustifiable pride, operated powerfully on the minds of a majority of the public against it. Numerous epigrams had been discharged at the author, while the pit expressed its displeasure, without the least reserve, and exclaimed from every part, “give us back Piron!” It was an act of injustice, however, to attribute this dramatic enterprise to a misplaced pride in the character of M. de la Harpe. His excellent taste had enabled him to discover the defects of the original *Gustavus*, and he could not avail himself of the beauties which rise out of the subject without being liable to the charge of plagiarism.

Thus it appears that, if the first advances of M. de la Harpe, in the career of the drama, were attended with uncommon success, he afterwards experienced, on three successive occasions, all those disappointments that so frequently attend the progress of dramatic ambition. The tragedies of Timoleon, Pharamond, and Gustavus, though very different in their construction, were judged with extreme severity. The first, indeed, obtained a few ill-attended representations; but the others were not favoured with a second performance.

The author, who, after the gratifying and applause reception of Warwick, thought that he was treading in the steps of the great dramatic writers, and fondly flattered himself that his reputation might set at defiance all attempts to lessen it, sunk at once from an excess of confidence to the extreme of despondency. If we figure to ourselves the situation of a young man whose only resource is his talents, who has been three times successively and severely checked in that career, the commencement of which crowned him with triumph. If we represent to ourselves the sufferings of wounded vanity, blended with and heightening the disquietudes of a situation but just removed from poverty, some notion may be entertained of the position in which M. de la Harpe at this moment found himself. He accordingly determined to renounce the theatre for the present, and give himself up, with a renewed and invigorated zeal, to general learning, which always appeared to be his proper element. The academic associations, in almost all the towns of France, offered, at this time, to the young candidates for literary fame, not only the means of making themselves known, but secured also, if they obtained a prize, pecuniary resources, which, in some situations, were of no inconsiderable value.

The French academy had introduced the practice of proposing for its prizes the eulogiums of great men, or the solution of some moral or physical question. This branch of literature, which had been recently projected

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to extend the principles of the sophists, and to enroll in their sect such young men as manifested dispositions suitable to it, was in high estimation; and M. Thomas, whose reputation it had established, had been permitted to adopt a species of eloquence in direct opposition to that of the ancients, as well as to that of the most celebrated orators of the French Church. M. de la Harpe, who was tinctured, in some degree, with the new opinions, applied himself to the cultivation of the learning in fashion, and brought it to perfection. It may, indeed, be said, without the fear of contradiction from any man of classical taste, that M. de la Harpe was the only writer of his day who gave to academic eloquence the tone which was suited to it. He disengaged it of the philosophic apparel, of the tedious enumerations, of the pompous words, and pedantic expressions, for which M. Thomas had been so justly reproached.

At this period M. de la Harpe had been some time married to a young person, born of poor parents, but who had been educated with great care. He had the imprudence to inspire his wife with a taste for literature. It was by his desire that she became an assiduous attendant on the French theatre, in order that she might be qualified to converse with him on the subjects which occupied his mind, and to assist him with her opinions. Madame de la Harpe, therefore, being thus immersed in literature, and in cultivating her talents for declamation, never reflected for a moment on the possibility of those misfortunes which her husband might experience: after the ill-success of *Gustavus*, these young people were involved in the most afflicting distress. At this embarrassing moment M. de Voltaire invited them to reside at Ferney, till their affairs could be re-established.

Ferney presented at this time a very extraordinary scene. It was the centre of the philosophic correspondence; nor was any measure taken by the sect without consulting its patriarch. Those who had been initiated into it considered themselves as bound by duty, at least once in their lives, to make a pilgrimage to this village. Nor was this rage confined to those who professed philosophy: the magistrate, the courtier, and the burgher, who wished to be thought a man of letters, imposed on themselves the same obligation. The concourse of visitors was without end; and as the château and the village of Ferney could not contain such a succession of pilgrims, houses were fitted up at Geneva for their particular use, and of which the owners made a very advantageous speculation. The reception given to these visitors was suited to their respective rank and character. Noblemen and philosophers, whether from

France or other countries, were admitted to free enjoyment of its amusements and its hospitality, while others of inferior claim were necessarily satisfied with inferior attentions.

It was at this court, the first that a poet had ever established, that M. and Madame de la Harpe arrived, and at a moment of its greatest brilliance. M. de Voltaire had erected a theatre where he represented those of his tragedies which were known to the stage, and where he tried the effect of those which he had lately composed. The audience consisted of foreigners whom the desire of seeing Ferney had brought to Geneva, literary men of that city, and French officers whose regiments formed the garrisons in that neighbourhood. The principal actors were M. de Voltaire, who undertook the parts of the old men, Madame Denis, who played the impassioned female, a printer of Geneva, named Cramer, who assumed the dress of Gengis-Kan, or Orosmanes, and Chabanon, who was employed as a young hero, or a youthful lover. The play was succeeded by a supper and a ball. This dramatic company, which Voltaire, in his enthusiastic moments, would sometimes pronounce superior to the French comedians, was even, in his opinion, susceptible of improvement. Madame Denis was no longer of an age to play *Aménâide*, and Cramer was deficient in dignity: M. and Madame de la Harpe were, therefore, frequently invited to supply their places. They were both practised in the art of declamation, and each of them being endowed with a fine voice, and possessing a pleasing figure, they called forth the loudest plaudits of this domestic theatre. M. de Voltaire, in his correspondence, never knew when to conclude the praises which he bestowed on their talents.

It was about this time that M. de la Harpe made his first approaches to seat in the Academy. The tragedy of *Warwick*, which continued to be a popular performance, and two discourses which had gained their respective prizes, gave him a claim to the distinction which he had in view, far superior to that of many of the actual academicians. But as he had never yielded his principles of criticism to flatter the new opinions, he had some reason to apprehend that he should find opponents even in the philosophic party.—Marmontel had published his *Pharsalia* in the preceding year, and in the preliminary discourse had laid down certain principles respecting poetical composition at which a man of taste and judgment could not but revolt. M. de la Harpe, having been the first to enter the lists with him on this occasion, entertained an apprehension that Marmontel would contrive to present some obstacle to his admission. Voltaire undertook to settle the matter. As the translator of *Lucan* was un-

der considerable obligations to him, he had no doubt of success in the proposed mediation. "It appears that he has opposed your opinions on the subject of Lucan," said Voltaire in a letter to Marmontel, "but at the same time he did not refrain from doing justice to your merits; and you may depend upon finding him an attached and faithful friend." Marmontel yielded readily to the spirit of reconciliation, and, at the request of Voltaire, united his endeavours with those of D'Alembert to clear the way for M. de la Harpe to the Academy.

While he remained in an humiliating retirement at Ferney, Dorat made a brilliant figure at Paris, whose principal coteries had adopted him, and where the public infatuation stands in the place of all merit. He well knew how to avail himself of this prepossession, and had actually acquired such a powerful influence on the public opinion in works of literature, that Voltaire himself thought it a matter of discretion to pay him attentions. At the same time it may be supposed, as it really happened, that the vain pretensions of Dorat did not pass without observation in the vicinity of Geneva; nor, as it may be readily believed, did the object of this railing remain long uninformed of it. He accordingly published a satirical answer to the Conversations of Ferney; which M. de la Harpe, more from a principle of gratitude to Voltaire than of enmity to Dorat, to replied with great spirit and severity. This was an offence that could not be forgiven by a man whose sensibility to criticism was proportioned to the exaggerations of his own self-conceit. Voltaire, indeed, interposed to effect a reconciliation—but Dorat was inflexible.

At this time M. de la Harpe received an advantageous offer to superintend some plan of education in Russia, and where, after a long and laborious exercise of his talents, he might have acquired a moderate competence for the support of his declining years. Nor was he altogether indisposed to accept it. But the opinion of Voltaire, who encouraged the hopes of better things, induced him to abandon that project. These hopes were founded on the protection of M. de Choiseul, who, at that time, governed France, and to whose protection Voltaire had taken frequent opportunities to recommend his young friend. But M. de la Harpe was not formed to seize on the advantages to be derived from such a circumstance. Naturally possessing a sincere heart and an independent mind, he could not bring himself to submit to those compliances which are essentially necessary to make a rapid progress in the favour of a minister.—Uncertain and distant hopes were all he obtained at his return from Ferney. As he had no resource on which he could rely but the employment of his talents, he resumed the

career of criticism, and associated himself with Lacombe, the proprietor and editor of the *Mercure*. This journal, whose principal merit was that of dispersing abroad the reigning opinions, assumed a new character in the hands of M. de la Harpe. Sound criticism, luminous dissertations, comprehensive and profound views of his subjects, succeeded to the declamatory sophisms which had hitherto distinguished this publication.

At this time the Academy of Rochelle proposed, at the suggestion of M. Dupati, who was the founder of it, the Eulogium of Henry the Fourth as the subject for a prize dissertation. It appeared, however, that it was the object of M. Dupati to produce a defence of the Protestants, rather than a panegyric of the hero. But as M. de la Harpe was not in the secret, his eulogium did not answer the end proposed, and an *accessit* was all the honour which it obtained.

The researches which he had been obliged to make respecting the stormy reigns of Charles IX. and Henry III. suggested to him an idea of writing the History of the League, and he consulted M. de Voltaire on the subject; but the appearance of a work by M. Anquetil, entitled *L'Esprit de la Ligue*, and which was very favourably received, determined M. de la Harpe to abandon the work which he had undertaken.

At length, however, the efforts which M. de Voltaire had made to introduce M. de la Harpe to the friendship of the minister promised to be crowned with success. He had received a general promise of protection from the Duke de Choiseul, but had not been admitted to any degree of intimacy with him.

Voltaire endeavoured to procure him this advantage, and in a very flattering Epistle, addressed to the Duchess, he speaks in the following manner to the author of Warwick:—

Toi dont le goût formé voudroit encor s'instruire,  
Entre Mars et Venus tâche de t'introduire.  
Déjà de leurs biensfaits tu connais le pouvoir,  
Il est un plus grand bien: c'est celui de les voir.  
Mais ce bonheur est rare, et le Dieu de la Guerre  
Garde son cabinet dont on n'approche guère.  
Je sais plus d'un brave homme à sa porte assidu,  
Qui lui doit sa fortune et ne l'a jamais vu.

M. de la Harpe was soon after admitted to the Duke de Choiseul's society; nor was it long before that minister appreciated his superior qualities. Often did the great man lay aside his important cares, to enjoy those literary conversations which the poet had the art to render delightful to him. The Duke, who was not accustomed to be treated with so much freedom by those around him, was pleased by the easy, frank behaviour with which his protégé accompanied their discussions; and Madame de Choiseul used to be

amused with the tone of authority frequently assumed by the man of letters in conversing with the minister\*. In one of their conversations, the Duke de Choiseul having expressed a regret that *Suetonius* had not been translated into French, M. de la Harpe seized the opportunity of manifesting his gratitude to his protector, and in two months presented him the translation. It was a well written, but hasty work; and as it was received in the most flattering manner by the minister's friends, M. de la Harpe ventured to give it to the world without correcting its imperfections. His numerous enemies did not spare him on this occasion, and attacked his

\* The following is the description given by M. Dutens of the very splendid manner of living of the Duke de Choiseul, at his country seat, after his retirement from the ministry:—Chanteloup is a magnificent castle, situated upon the banks of the Loire. The Duke de Choiseul had found much room for improvement there, and was very successfully employed in embellishing his retreat. It was a delightful place, where the most complete and the most superb establishment was kept up, that I have seen at the house of any great nobleman in Europe. There were nearly four hundred persons who lived in the house, including servants, in the pay of the Duke; fifty-four of whom were in livery: and though the greater part of them were not kept by him, the expense of the family may be guessed at, from the single article of bread, which cost three hundred livres (L12 10s.) a day. Besides the Duke's table, a knight of Saint Louis, esquire to the Duchess, kept a second table, served like her own, for the reception of persons of a certain rank, who were there upon business. There were, besides, three other tables; without reckoning the livery servants, who had board wages. There were also a hunting establishment, a theatre, &c. The manner of living there was quite easy. Nobody made their appearance in the morning, except on particular occasions. At three o'clock dinner was served; when those who chose attended at table, and those who did not had it served in their apartments. After dinner the company went to the drawing-room, where they made a party; or in very hot weather, occupied their time in reading: every one remained or withdrew, according to his pleasure; nobody ever said, Why do you not stay? Where are you going? nor asked any other troublesome questions. Towards evening the Duchess de Choiseul went to walk with the Duke, and every one took pleasure in accompanying them; the guests afterwards retired, or played at cards till supper; and those who did not choose supper retired, without being noticed by any one.

book with unexampled violence: but he disarmed their vengeance by acknowledging his errors, and the frankness of his character, which suggested his conduct on the occasion, preserved him from the disagreeable consequences which he may be said, in some measure, to have deserved.

It was, however, by a drama that M. de la Harpe was to resume his place in the public opinion, and to acquire, at length, that solid reputation which renders an author superior to the injuries of criticism. *Mélanie*, which had been some time in the hands of Voltaire, and cried up to all his correspondents, excited an uncommon sensation before it was printed. This piece, written to expose the bad effects of monastic vows, was expected with the most lively impatience. The philosophers, who are the least qualified to judge of poetry, made it an affair of party. D'Alembert appeared to be one of the greatest admirers of this drama, and its success was very great indeed in the societies of Paris. That philosopher did not fail to accompany M. de la Harpe to the representations of the piece, when he assumed a serious and composed air which excited a general attention. In the first act he would remark the philosophic views of the work, and took care, at the same time, to exaggerate the consequences resulting from them; afterwards, possessing as he did the gift of mimicry, he would weep always at the same passages which imposed upon the women in particular the necessity of being moved to grief. How disgraceful would it have been to their sensibility to have had their eyes dry, when those of a philosopher overflowed! This farce was often repeated, and proved a plenteous source of eulogiums on the tender nature of M. d'Alembert; it gave, at the same time, to *Mélanie* all the advantage of a new mode of writing. "You have on your side," said Voltaire, in one of his letters to the author, "the philosophers and the women, and with such support, a man may go very far indeed."—*Mélanie*, however, has not shared the fate of those ephemeral works which disappear with the circumstances from which they originated. It has ever since continued to receive the admiration of all lovers of poetry; and on their account the author corrected it in his latter years, and, erasing its philosophic declamations, substituted those religious sentiments which were more congenial to the subject.

It may appear extraordinary that so much pains were taken to secure success to this kind of dramatic composition; but it was a part of the tactics of the philosophers to neglect no means, however trifling, that promised to assist in the execution of their projects.—*Mélanie*, in the opinion of Voltaire, formed a very strong attack on religion. If so

happened, that at the moment when he received this piece, the Count d'Aranda had transmitted to him an edict which he had got by surprise from the unsuspecting King of Spain against the clergy of that kingdom. It is well known of this minister, that having been initiated into the mysteries of the society of Baron d'Holback, he endeavoured to reduce to practice in Madrid the theories of the French philosophers. Voltaire, though enchanted with the infidel dispatch from Spain, had his doubts, nevertheless, whether he should not prefer that which contained Mélanie. In one of his letters to M. de la Harpe he writes as follows: "I have received this week two pieces which afford me great consolation. The first was yours, and afterwards that of the Count d'Aranda, which gave the last blow to fanaticism." It is not among the least of those singularities which characterize the eighteenth century, that the edict of a King, and a theatrical piece called a drama should be placed in the same rank. But irreligion is democratic, and levels all distinctions.

The success of Mélanie encouraged the author to be more bold in his criticisms. He continued his labours in the *Mercure*, and his extracts were, with great justice, considered as excellent lectures on literature.—Voltaire, who was a constant reader of this journal, frequently encouraged his pupil; but he foresaw that the renewal of a pure taste would not take place till a distant period. His prediction is remarkable. "Do not," said he to M. de la Harpe,—"do not delude yourself with the hope of re-establishing a correct taste. We live, in every sense of the expression, at a period of the most grievous decline. Nevertheless, you may be assured that the time will come, when every thing that has been written in the style of Louis XIV. will rise to the surface, and that all the other Goth and Vandal writings will be overwhelmed in the stream of oblivion." Voltaire, when he made this prediction, was far from foreseeing what the tardy return of taste and reason would cost. It was reserved for M. de la Harpe to survive the disasters which the sophists were then preparing, and to re-establish, on the ruins of their schools, the edifice which they had destroyed.

When, however, he began to enjoy the public favour, and to form reasonable hopes of future fortune, his protector, M. de Choiseul, was disgraced. Another misfortune soon followed, and, for some time, compromised the safety of the poet. A very severe poem against the Duke de Richelieu was then circulating throughout Paris. It was attributed to M. de la Harpe, who was known to be intimately connected with d'Alembert, the declared enemy of the Marshal, who had not sufficient courage to employ his pen against

him. Every one knew the devotion of M. de la Harpe to his friends, and it was by no means an unnatural supposition that he had employed his genius in the service of the philosopher. The most earnest and reiterated solicitations of M. de Voltaire with difficulty appeased the resentment of the Duke de Richelieu, who at length consented to waive his design of obtaining an order to arrest M. de la Harpe; but, at the same time, he constantly refused him his vote, when any opportunity offered of his being elected into the Academy.

These disagreeable events did not, however, check the progress of his labours. The eulogium on *Fenelon*\*, which obtained the prize of the French Academy, did him great honour; but the philosophers were chiefly delighted with the biting passages which were particularly aimed at Bossuet. The last edition of this work which was corrected by the author does not contain any of those propositions which had merited the censures of the Sorbonne.

D'Alembert had not at this time possessed himself of that predominating influence in the Academy which he afterwards obtained. Duclos having arrived at a very advanced age, required an assistant in his employment of perpetual secretary. Besides, he had lately sunk in the opinion of the philosophers. His honest and open character did not accord with the petty intrigues which were employed to propagate the new doctrines. It was determined, therefore, that M. D'Alembert should take a share of his labours; and as M. Duclos had not only been very careless, but had manifested a disgust in the discharge of his office, it was hoped that he would leave to his coadjutor all the details of it—a circumstance which would enable him to render the party very important service.

M. de la Harpe, who was not initiated into these mysteries, which were altogether unconnected with literature, beheld with pleasure the additional honour conferred upon his friend by the Academy; it also strengthened his own hopes of being soon admitted into that society. In a short time after this arrangement Duclos died.—The functions which D'Alembert had fulfilled gave him a claim to the reversion of the office, and he accordingly succeeded to it.

Assured as he now was of his being appointed to one of the first vacant places in the Academy, M. de la Harpe pursued his literary labours with increasing ardour, in order to render himself deserving of this distinction. "The Answer of Horace to the Epistle of Voltaire," and "The Shade of Duclos," two charming poems, written with uncommon facility, and full of nature and gaiety.

\* Vide *Panorama*, vol. I. p. 769.  
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obtained him a greater degree of reputation than his serious works. For when his eulogium of Racine\* appeared, he had to contend with a numerous party of opponents, who reproached him, and perhaps with some reason, for his exaggerated admiration of Voltaire, and his very evident design to depreciate Corneille.

[*To be continued.*]

OBSERVATIONS ON THE MAINOTES.

[From the Travels of Stephanopoli.]

The known, and, we might almost say, acknowledged, plans of Buonaparte in reference to the Greek nation, which he means to use as an accessory in his designs on the Turkish Empire, gives to what information we can procure concerning the tribes of which that nation is composed, and the nature of their country, an interest much beyond what we should have attached to it a few years ago. We therefore present the following account to our readers, with the double intention, of furnishing a portion of the history of mankind, and of communicating an idea of those materials which the enterprising Emperor and King might employ to serve his purposes.

THE Mainotes inhabit that part of the Morea which forms Cape Matapan, and pretend to be descendants of the ancient Spartans.

When a woman of this people approaches her delivery, a midwife, with some relations, or neighbours, are called in, to prepare every thing necessary. She stands up supported by her husband, who leans his back against the bed. This position is thought to facilitate child-birth. As soon as the child is born, the midwife rubs its limbs, and powders it with fine salt † from head to foot. At the end of three days the child is washed with a warm decoction of aromatic herbs; to preserve it from eruptions. When the mother swathes her infant, she strews fine powder of myrtle leaves, particularly over the articulations.

The birth of a boy is announced by the father's firing off a gun. At this signal, the relations and friends testify their joy by doing the same. During the first week after her lying-in, the relations visit the mother, and bring her presents of eatables suitable to her situation. During the whole time of her lying in bed, she takes the richest nourishment, and drinks only wine; water being

\* This is translating for a future number of Panorama.

† Comp. Ezek. xvi. 4.] *Ed.*

expressly prohibited. Every mother suckles her children, and, if she should happen to die, all her neighbours are anxious to discharge the duty of nurse or mother to her offspring. The child is baptized and confirmed at the same time. The priest detaches a piece of wax from the two candles which have been used at the ceremony, then cuts some hair from the child's head, sticks it to the wax, and throws the whole into the baptismal water.

The cradle (called *niaka*) used at Maina, is a proof of the natural simplicity of the natives. It is made of sheep's skin well tanned, and painted of any colour. It is a yard in length, and, at the head part, three feet and a half wide; but at the foot only two. A stick is fixed to each side, with a ring at both ends, through which runs a cord. The head reclines on a cushion, which prevents the sticks from closing, and gives the child air. The mother hangs the cradle on a nail in the wall. Whenever she goes out, she slings it over her back, as a soldier does his knapsack. Nothing is more common than to see a Mainote woman returning from the fields, with a bundle of wood at her back, and the cradle over it; yet her burden is so well distributed, that she has her hands at liberty to spin cotton as she goes along.

The boys remain, until seven years old, under the direction of their mothers; who inspire them with a love for their country, the respect due to age, discretion, fidelity towards friends, and, above all, hospitality to the poor, and to strangers. After this period, the father takes charge of his son's education. He instructs him in reading and writing; inures him to the labours of the field, to render him robust; trains him to the use of arms, till he can join in juvenile sports, which consist of wrestling, raising weights, hurling stones of a certain size, leaping, and swimming.

The girls are brought up to domestic employments. Their chief instruction is confined to spinning cotton, and raising silk-worms. Every married woman has her machinery at home for manufacturing cottons and silks, which serve both sexes for dresses. A young female, constantly engaged with her mother, has no time to think of the amusements belonging to her age. It is only on holidays that she can go out to church, or to dances, which are given in the public squares in the day time: they never dance at night.

Though the young men are healthy and strong, and early accustomed to hard labour, yet they never marry before five and twenty. Until that period, their chief aim is to signalize themselves in combat; for which occasions frequently occur. There is not a new Pacha of the Morea, who is not anxious to mark his arrival by an attack on the Main-

otes. In a moment, they rise in a body. The young men are the first to face the enemy. The sole recompense they aim at, is the suffrage of the fair sex. Nothing is more likely to animate them, than the praises of young heroines, always ready to share the danger. Thus, notwithstanding the very great superiority of the Ottoman troops, they are invincible.

The gunpowder, used by the Mainotes, is excellent. Each family makes it at home. It forms one of the principal occupations of the youth. The sulphur, saltpetre, and charcoal are first pounded separately, in wooden mortars, and then the whole together. Some of the lands furnish abundance of saltpetre, but the Mainotes are ignorant of the art of extracting it.

Worthy rivals of their (Spartan) ancestors, the young dispute the honour of pilfering with dexterity. They plunder the fruit, bread, and other kinds of provisions of their neighbours ; and make a public merit of their address.

No corporal punishment attaches to thieving ; they must restore seven-fold. Theft is never expiated by death : " all the wealth in the world, say the Mainotes, is not worth the life of a man." In fact, what is stolen is of no great value ; perhaps, fruit or vegetables. The best check to thieving is the excommunication denounced against it by the priests.

In their larcenies they never utter a falsehood, or use violence, that would be an indelible shame ; and the slightest fraud is loss of character, for ever. Accustomed from infancy to disinterestedness, and sobriety, the youth of Maina have no idea of pecuniary speculations. They set a value on the esteem only of their fellow-citizens, and on virtue, the sole treasure of freemen.

There are no schoolmasters, properly so called, at Maina. The priests instruct children in reading and writing ; which is nearly all they know themselves : however, they inform the heart and mind at the same time. Their morality consists of precepts, much less than of examples. Nevertheless, they have a kind of moral and political catechism (religion seems out of the question), worthy of Laconic conciseness. It is a dialogue between a master and his scholar, in the Socratic style.

The best polities of the Mainotes are, that they have none. Justice is their guide, and suspicion their safeguard. They are almost destitute of books, and are engaged only in agriculture, fishing, hunting, and the management of arms. The latter holds the first rank ; thus we may see, at the same time, a lad leaving school, and a priest the altar, to attack the enemy.

Hospitality is their favourite virtue. Should

a victim to Turkish tyranny seek an asylum among them, he is received with all the attention due to misfortune and to amity. Lodging, food and raiment, every thing is provided. If they are not equally cordial with strangers, it proceeds from the fear of introducing depravity of manners.

Nowhere do we see so much affection and tenderness reign between relations, as at Maina. The glory of a noble action, or the shame of a base one, reflects upon all. Each family considers its elders as guides. Is a marriage, or any other important undertaking on foot ? the elders are the first to be consulted. In this the Mainotes only follow the application of their rules of conduct, of which experience is the basis.

#### *Marriages among the Mainotes.*

They know nothing at Maina of those intrigues which in other countries are considered as introductory to marriage, and which generally favour attachment at the expense of conjugal union. When a young man has selected a companion for life, he communicates it to his parents, who demand her in marriage ; her parents consent, if the young man appears suitable. They then disclose to their daughter the choice they have made, which she sanctions by her silence. As soon as the union is agreed on, the lover is expressly prohibited from entering the house of his beloved, and from speaking to her, till the marriage is solemnized. If he dared to violate this prohibition, the match would be broken off.

On the wedding day, the parents of the young man repair with him to the house of the intended ; the lover is stopped at the door by one of her relations who addresses him thus ; " who do you want ? "—" My intended, to marry her according to law."—" Hast thou the means of supporting her ? "—" Would her parents have consented to the match if I had not ? "—The father is then called, and told that his future son-in-law is at the door ; he comes out to meet him, and salutes him with, " Thou art welcome, son-in-law ; God prosper thee, peace and happiness with thy companion, and every thing thy heart can wish."—He then embraces him.

Next come the young woman's brothers, who congratulate him, and make him a pecuniary present, according to their ability. Then follow the females, preceded by the mother and sisters of the intended ; to the same embracements, and the same good wishes they add a very different present ; namely, each lays a handkerchief over his shoulders and leaves it.

After this, a little child, not more than six years old, brother or cousin-german to the betrothed, conducts the young man to the

room where his intended is. They salute each other, and then his parents are introduced, when the rejoicings commence; they eat some dried fruits, and drink, and sing hymenals. At the close of the evening, they proceed to church, the young man's relations march first, with the paramymph, who is charged with changing the rings and the chaplets; then comes the betrothed, with her female attendants. The altar in the church is ornamented with a cross placed between six candles. The priest places the young woman to the right. He then asks them whether they wish to be united according to the ritual of the church. If they answer in the affirmative, he blesses them, and, taking their right hands, says, "Those hearts which God has joined together, let no man put asunder." He then blesses the rings, and puts each on to the fourth finger of their right hands, saying; "The faithful in God N... is united with the faithful in God M...".—Then, turning towards the altar, he blesses the chaplets. In the interim, the rings are changed three times, so that the ring of one is found on the finger of the other: it is the same with the chaplets, which are made of vine stalks, combined with branches of lemon and laurel. The priest places them on their heads, saying; "I crown the faithful in God N... in uniting him with the faithful in God M...".—Afterwards, he wishes them a peaceable life, and makes them drink, out of the same glass, a little wine with a piece of bread in it. He then leads them round the altar three times, blesses them once more, and thus concludes his office.

They leave the church in the same order as they entered it, and guns and pistols are fired. While the married couple are passing the streets, women from the windows throw over them corn and millet, the symbols of fecundity. They are accompanied by music, and return to the bridegroom's house. Her mother-in-law, having taken off her veil, leads her into a room where she is seated on a cushion over a sack of corn; and by her side lies another full of nuts, almonds, and other dried fruits, which she distributes to those who come to congratulate her. The rest of the day is passed at the table, and the night in dancing. The young couple do not pass the night together.

Three days after, the bride and bridegroom repair to her father-in-law's, preceded by a young child, where they dine. When they retire, the mother-in-law presents the bride with a distaff and spindle, as indicative of her future occupations; and the bridegroom receives instruments of agriculture. About a week afterwards, the husband receives his wife's portion, which consists of furniture and apparel. If the wife dies without issue, her fortune is punctually restored; if, on the con-

trary, the husband dies first, the wife enjoys her fortune during her widowhood. Divorce is permitted, but it is very rare. In general there are only two motives; namely, incompatibility of disposition, fully proved; and the absence of the husband for seven years, without his wife hearing from him. No process or expence is requisite; they go before the bishop, prove the fact, and he pronounces their separation, with permission to enter into other engagements. Should there be any children, the father is bound to take them.

#### *Funerals among the Mainotes.*

As soon as a Mainote has breathed his last, his death is announced by the shrieks of all who attended him. He is wrapped up in a sheet, and covered with a white counterpane except the face. The nearest relations remain near the corpse, weeping, their hair dishevelled, and singing funeral airs. After the widow has given way to her grief, she retraces all her husband's good qualities, and repeats extempore verses to the following effect; "I shall wander over the fields, and through the towns, without meeting with thee,—and can I survive it? Heaven grant that I may soon follow thee, or that, changed into a bird, I may fill the deserts with my moanings, and that I may never repose on a green branch, nor drink of the pure stream, like the turtle dove bereaved of her mate!"

When the priests arrive, accompanied by almost the whole village, as soon as the body is laid on the bier the tears and shrieks are redoubled; but, as soon as the procession sets off, every one is silent. The priests chant, the men follow the bier, and the females close the procession. After they are arrived at the church, while the minister during the service is pronouncing the words, "Weep, friends and brethren, my separation!" the nearest relations of the deceased go successively two and two on each side of the bier, facing the altar; they then make a prostration, kiss very respectfully the image of Christ lying on his breast, and next his forehead. The burial being over, they all return to the house of the deceased, testify their grief, and retire.

#### *Description of Maina.—Character of the Inhabitants.*

According to tradition, Maina is derived from the Greek word *Fury*, expressive of the impetuosity of the natives in their wars with the Turks. The country, though surrounded with rugged mountains, contains a population of nearly 45,000 persons. They reckon 300 villages, of which Vitulo is the most considerable. The chief productions are wheat, barley, and pease. The land never lies fallow, and though the harvests are

not abundant, the deficiency in corn is supplied by a prodigious quantity of oil, and by the breeding of silk worms. The vine is not cultivated, as the Mainotes prefer Ceres to Bacchus ; " we can dispense with wine," say they, " but not with corn." Besides, they can easily procure wine and grapes from other parts of the Morea. Extreme poverty and great wealth are unknown. In summer the natives imitate the ant, by providing a sufficient stock of the most necessary provisions. Economy constitutes their riches. Equally careful of time and money, their word is sufficiently sacred to obviate the necessity of contracts. Hence they have among them neither notaries, lawyers, nor bailiffs.

Nothing is more sacred than the honour of the sex. To insult a woman is cowardice ; to outrage her can only be expiated by blood. In fact, the females are the first to make themselves respected, and the conduct of the mother is the best lesson to the daughter. It is not that they are insensible to the charms of Venus, or that the young men view them with indifference ; but both sexes are equally jealous of preserving their physical and moral powers, the better to cement their general liberty. The inhabitants of a village live together like children of one family. They have all things in common, and take pleasure in mutual assistance. Is any one in distress, and burthened with a numerous family, the priests or the principal natives make a collection, and send it to him privately.

#### Religion.

The Mainotes follow the religion of the eastern church, and acknowledge the Patriarch of Constantinople as their head. They consider the Roman pontiff as schismatic, for having prohibited marriage to the priests, and for selling bulls to deliver souls from purgatory.

The bishop of Mâins has neither house nor salary. He lives in a small convent, with a few monks, either by his labour, or on the produce of masses, for each of which he is paid forty *paras* (about 3s. 6d.) ; but the other priests are paid only ten. Most of them are married, and obliged to work for their subsistence, having no revenue but casualties. The custom of paving tythes or any other contribution to the church is unknown among the Greeks.

The priests very seldom preach after mass ; instead of sermons they substitute an exemplary life. Their modesty, mildness, and simplicity, engage the unlimited confidence of the people, who are as attached to their religion as they are to their country. Hence the common axiom, " Let us fight for religion and our country." This maxim is so religiously observed, that the priests are the first to fly to arms. If there be a plurality of priests in one village, each officiates during

the week. In church, their wives take precedence of other women.

#### On the Mainote women.

During their wars with the Turks the men never quit their post ; their wives not only bring them ammunition and provisions, but share their dangers. If a woman sees her husband mortally wounded, she takes his arms and endeavours to avenge his death. *Theocari*, during the last war, saw her son die at her feet, she seized his arms and exclaimed, " Sleep, my child, I am at thy post." Presence of mind, and contempt of death distinguish the females. *Irene*, wounded in the thigh by a ball, turned towards the enemy and with an undaunted air exclaimed, " If I can no longer work, I will breed children who shall avenge me." *Helena*, lately married, found her husband wounded in the left arm and the ball stuck in the flesh, she sucked the blood, drew out the ball with her tongue, and presenting it to her husband said, " Take it, and send it back to the enemy." As is the mother, so is the daughter. The young *Stamata* carrying powder and provisions to her brother, found him drawing his sabre to oppose a couple of Turks ; she seized his gun and shot one of them, while he cut down the other.

Cowards are seldom met with among a people always under arms. If there should be found one, the women are the first to arraign him, even after his death. When a Mainote falls in an engagement, his comrades leave him there till after the action ; they then bury him, and carry his clothes to his family. By the traces of the blood, his mother, or his wife, can easily distinguish whether the wound was received before or behind ; if it was before, they bewail his loss ; but, if it was behind, they burn the clothes, and never allow any one to speak of him.

Such is the outline (drawn by a French commissary) of a people whom Napoleon wishes to accept the *yoke* of Imperial liberty !

#### ACCOUNT OF THE ISLAND OF USHANT, on the French Coast of the Channel.

This island, called by Pliny Axanthis, and by the inhabitants *Ussa*, lies three leagues from Albeulduce, seven from Conquet, and nearly the same distance from Cape St. Mathieu. It is seven leagues in circumference. Except particular bays, the coast is steep and inaccessible. The principal town stands on the north side of the island. The whole population, before the revolution, might amount to from 14 to 1500 souls.

The inhabitants live here as in the time of the golden age. Property is so secure, that a purse full of money may be left in any public place, without the least danger of its being

stolen. Mutual love, union, and equality, reign universally. Each is contented with the necessities of life; and the costliness and luxury of the table is unknown. Long life is the reward of their frugality. Marriages are not contracted here through self-interest, nor profaned by infidelity. Still less are the destructive workings of ambition and love of power known, or, if they do arise, they are immediately appeased by the intervention of good sense and reason.

The well-disposed inhabitants of Ushant love their rude island as much as the Laplanders and Greenlanders love their frozen climate; and, like them, think themselves miserable when removed to foreign parts.—Such is the power of early habit! They communicate very little with strangers; they cultivate a little land, attend to their flocks, and carry the produce of their fishing to Brest, to exchange for any necessaries they may want. They dread no misfortune except that of being pressed into the navy. There is only one public house on the island, where no person can buy more than one bottle of wine per day. The sheep-walks are in common. There are no poor. Young women who are disposed to wedlock take the necessary measures, for they invite themselves to the families of their lovers. Without any further explanation, the lover soon takes an opportunity to conduct the father, or guardian, of his beloved to the inn. The wedding is then as good as solemnized—there wants nothing but the ceremony of the church, which shortly follows, as a matter of course.

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#### ACCOUNT OF THE PEASANTS NEAR PLOUGAZNON IN BRITANNY.

They never mix with strangers; few ever quit their paternal huts. Property is not divided; they live in common like the Patriarchs. A piece of land often belongs to a hundred proprietors. The names of these possessions have been retained from the earliest times; they are taken collectively from the situation of the fixed property, as it lies in a valley, on a hill, or in a plain. Thus for example, *Plougaznon* means the people in the valley; *Guima* the upper people; *Plouezoch*, those who live higher; and *Ploucean*, or *Plouchan*, the highest mountaineers.

Their manners are perfectly plain and simple. They are led away by their imaginations; their language is full of metaphors and figurative expressions. Lovers address each other in verse: partly extempore, and partly what they have learned from others. On a wedding day the new married couple are served with a soup, brought in a hand-barrow, by four men dressed in white: other four in a similar dress bring napkins, by a similar conveyance for the use of the guests.

The loaf, which is handed to them, is cut through the middle. The two pieces, which are fastened by a string, imply the matrimonial union.

A very ancient custom has been retained among the children. When they exchange or give up any thing to each other, the possessor of the thing given up blows a hair into the air, and the bargain is concluded without any further ceremony. In modern times such hairs have been found in old seals, which probably served for a like purpose. Hair appears there to represent property, and blowing it into the air implies a renunciation of it.

The Breton language is no where spoken so good and so pure as in the neighbourhood of *St. Pol*. It has so much peculiarity and difference, as to be quite unintelligible to most European nations. The following proverbs may serve as proofs: *Falla ibil a so er har a vigono da guenta*, “The worst pin in the cart is that which makes the most noise.” *He quet red taoler mein och quement ki a ars*, “One must not throw a stone at every dog that barks.” *Ar mean a mill ne zistum quet a guinoi*, “A rolling stone gathers no moss.” *Ne quet un devés tout a ia an an*, “One swallow does not make a summer.” *Nep fo lem a deudalle besa calet a flip scornar*, “He who has a shrill tongue ought to be hard of hearing.” *Barnitar reall evel ma fell deoch besa barnet*, “Judge of others as you would have them judge of you.”

It will not appear strange to any one, who recollects the ancient connection of these people, if the inhabitants of Cornwall and Tréguier are the only people who can converse with them. The dialect of Vannes is still more different, which no one even in this part of the country understands.

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#### PERIODS OF LITERATURE.

##### [From the German of Meuzel.]

It is an interesting subject to trace the progress of science in all its branches. To observe the human mind emerging from darkness into light, and to see the influence which knowledge has had on the whole body of science, as well as on the men who have shone in more than one branch of it.

From Adam to Noah are reckoned seventeen centuries and a half. During so long a period mankind must have made many important discoveries in knowledge and in the arts. But, did they *really* make them, and what was the nature of them? No one can answer the question, as we have no historian of those very early ages. Moses, the most ancient, lived much too late (900 years after Noah) to furnish us with any thing authentic relating to the ages before Noah, and the

period between his birth and the death of Noah. He tells us, indeed, that "Cain built the city of Enoch;" that "Zabal was the father of such as dwell in tents, and of such as have cattle;" that his brother, Jubal, was "the father of all such as handle the harp and organ;" and that "Tubal-Cain was an instructor of every artificer in brass and iron." But, from his account we cannot collect any clear ideas of the civil history of those ages, and much less of the learned. Hence my predecessors (says Menzel) have had recourse to conjecture, hypothesis, and fables. Vockerodt published a work in 1687 entitled, '*Istoria societatum et rei litterariae ante diluvium*,' and others have followed his example.

Even the number of works on the origin of language afford nothing but probabilities, not one fact. And the problem that "language was not created with man, but that he discovered it," is to this day disputed. We have no traces of the primeval language. It is therefore labour in vain to endeavor to investigate its properties. The president *Des Brosses*, who wrote expressly on the subject says, "the interval of so many centuries has had such an effect on languages, and they are become so degenerated, that the idea of pretending to trace them up to the primitive one would be absurd. The threads are too numerous and too entangled that we should hope to unravel them."

The following division of the periods of literature appear the most consistent.

First period—From Moses to Alexander the Great, 2450—3648 (or before C. 1550—336.)

Second period—From Alexander to the death of Augustus, 3648—3953 (or 336 before C. to 14 after C.)

Third period—From Augustus to the great migration of the nations, 14—400 after C.

Fourth period—From the above migration to the time of the Ansades, 400—1100.

Fifth period—From the Ansades to the revival of learning 1100—1500.

Sixth period—From the revival of learning to the close of the eighteenth century.

#### CURSORY REMARKS ON THE FOREGOING.

We are by no means satisfied with the periods chosen by the ingenious writer from whom the above is an extract. In the present state of our information, since the Indian records have been in some degree opened to us, we are able to deduce many probabilities as to the extent and accuracy of ancient knowledge which almost amount to certainties: and it is remarkable that the further we penetrate into antiquity the more correct we find those principles of deep and recondite science, which never could have entered into

the minds of uncultivated nations. It may fairly be asked, what kinds of knowledge could be preserved during so many ages? Buildings of the most permanent kinds, (of which no traces that can be referred to the times before the flood, even by conjecture, have ever been found) must either have been overwhelmed by that general convulsion, or have crumbled to atoms in the lapse of ages; —*a fortiori* every thing personal; whatever was esteemed elegant, ornamental, or gratifying. We cannot suppose that works of art, could escape, when the palaces (if such there were) which contained them were ruined. We are, therefore, restricted to sciences, and to positive institutions, as the only principles likely to be transplanted, as it were, and to flourish again in the second soil of the renovated world. These being *mental* principles *might* survive with the human race which cultivated them: and so we find they did. E. gr.

#### Positive Institutions of Religion.

It is enough on this head to appeal to the commemoration of the seventh day: no reason can be given why this observance should be established immediately after the deluge, unless it was derived from a prior origin, and general reception among earlier mankind.

#### Positive Institutions of Medicine.

It appears that this science was known, as to the *remedial* part, in the earliest ages in India; and the present race of physicians, in that country, do but practise what tradition has taught, and directed them. Among their most ancient books, are treatises on physic; one of the most ancient gifts of their Gods, issuing from the very Ark itself, is an able physician. Moreover the physic of those ages had a variety of specifics; not charms and conjurations, as among ignorant nations, but herbs, &c. whose known properties were opposed to the diseases they were meant to combat. But the properties of such herbs could not be known, till after long experience, and many failures. The very notion of *specifics* implies a selection from among a great number of remedies; of which the most part were discarded as uncertain. The supposable advantages of the antediluvians in respect to health, from bodily constitution, from the steady serenity of their atmosphere, and, probably, from a vegetable diet, must have rendered the progress of curative science proportionably slow; so that the height to which it had attained implies, a constant study and application in those who professed it. We must observe too, that the idea of dividing professions, never strikes half civilized man; that state of society in which physic was not

only separated from other professions, but had acquired a dignity and acknowledged importance, could not be a state of barbarism, nor of confusion, nor of low degrees of science; but implies a knowledge so far diffused as to have established various ranks in science, &c. which is inconsistent with prevailing ignorance.

*Positive Institutions of Astronomy.*

It is usually thought that this science requires a greater length of time than others to arrive at any thing like a satisfactory degree of excellence. The numerous calculations it comprises cannot be submitted to correction, the various combinations it discovers cannot be ascertained, but by a long series of observations, and after a lapse of many years. Nevertheless, it is found that the further our researches extend into antiquity, the more satisfactory is the evidence of great attainments in this science, having existed. The present astrologers or astronomers of India are the degenerate disciples of excellent masters who flourished long, very long, before them: the immense antiquity formerly supposed to be assumed by the Brahmins, (and elsewhere by the Chaldeans) proves to be merely misapprehensions of astronomical calculations. Now, it comes to the same, with respect to our argument, whether these were founded on the deductions of astronomy, or whether the science of numbers had been cultivated so successfully as to have attained to the skill, manifest in such instances of the application of the mental powers. Under either supposition science must have flourished; since ignorance would not have thought of instituting any calculations beyond that of the number of its fingers and toes. But, if both these sciences, astronomy and arithmetic combined their powers, and flourished together, then their evidence is very strongly in favour of the high state of science among those who had cultivated them, not for a short time, but for ages.

If then we make the best estimate in our power, of the sciences and arts which appear to have been extant as near as we can possibly approach to the deluge, we shall find reason to conclude that we ought not to consider the inventive faculties of man, or his capacity of ratiocination, as dormant in those early ages, but rather that, notwithstanding the general wreck of his productions, enough survived to demonstrate that he had applied himself to study, and had made a progress which if we have exceeded, we have, nevertheless no just right to contemn.

We are also of opinion that the interval from the deluge to Moses, ought not to have been excluded: for, we have little hesitation, if any, in attributing to those times the practice of the art of writing; and presuming that Scripture itself, is a transcript of the Shemite, Abrahamic, and Israelitish memoirs, we discover in what has come down to

us abundant traces of knowledge which must have existed, though only incidentally mentioned. Architecture, for instance, must have been studied; sculpture must have made some progress: engraving on stones was practised, and writing had branched out into several distinctions of characters. Now, these advances could not have taken place, had not other arts also prospered; since the very tools necessary to the exercise of these imply considerable dexterity in others, before they could be completed.

We object, on the same principle, to the interval between Moses and Alexander as too long. Certainly those immense masses, the Pyramids of Egypt, may be referred to the earliest part of this period. But the art of working stone, and even porphyry, a stone so hard that no modern artist can work it, is exhibited in such perfection in these pyramids, as demonstrates that the art had been long practised; while the surprising magnitude and weight of these stones shew also, that the mechanic powers, and their combinations, were well understood, and had acquired popularity and patronage, by which they were distinguished, if not honoured.

To the middle part of this period may be referred the Temple of Solomon; and we should suppose that the various branches of literature were at no time more flourishing than in the days of this prince. For we are not to consider Solomon as monopolizing all knowledge in his own person. It is evident by the sages to whom he is compared, " Ethan the Ezrahite, Heman, Chalcol and Darda, sons of Mahol—the children of the East, and all the wisdom of Egypt," that many very eminent men flourished in his time. And even Solomon received from Tyre much assistance and information.

These cursory remarks are intended only to excite the attention of our readers to a better distribution of the periods of literature. M. Meuzel's thought is ingenious; and it may be improved to considerable advantage. That we have not all the information we could wish respecting remote ages is unhappily too certain; but, till we have collected with diligence those evidences of their proficiency which time has spared, we are by no means competent to exclude them from our consideration. It does not follow that they were not learned, because we, at this late period, have but slender proofs of their attainments: but, it is our duty to give those slender proofs of their attainments, their full importance in our estimation, since after all we are certain that time cannot have increased the instances of our predecessors' powers: but has destroyed so great a proportion of them, that those which now remain must be taken in proof of, at least, an hundred times as many, which have disappeared in the course of ages.

## A TREE, THE FLOWERS OF WHICH RESEMBLE A HAND.

To such as interest themselves in the study of nature, nothing is more perplexing than those single, those individual instances, which appear to comprise in themselves the whole of their species. That the species exists *now*, we have the testimony of our senses; but, destroy the *one* we are acquainted with, and the evidence of its existence becomes historical, and so far problematical as the character of him who describes it may be liable to doubt. Ages after his death, enquiry shall be started as to his opportunities for actual inspection of the subject, his abilities for description, the correctness of the language he has employed, with many other hesitations which without amounting to denial, call the whole history in question, and render it uncertain.

There has flourished for ages immemorial in Toluca, a city of Mexico, a single tree, of a particular species, the only one ever known, or heard of, it is an object of regard, if not reverence to the natives, who impelled by a sort of affection, come from considerable distances to procure its flowers. The Mexican name of this tree is, *Macpalaochiquauhitl*, a name perfectly descriptive, importing, "the tree whose flowers resemble a 'hand';" from which peculiarity the traveler and botanist, to whom we are indebted for a representation of it, has applied a Greek name which expresses the same ideas, *Chiranthodendron*. The history of this singular tree is given in a work printed at Mexico, in the Spanish language, with two coloured plates, by Joseph Denis Larreategui, Physician at Mexico. A translation into French has been published at Paris, by M. Lescallier, counsellor of state, &c. *chez F. Didot*, price 7 fr.

That tree is of the family of Malvaceæ; but possesses characters peculiar to itself, which render it a very remarkable genus; such are the form of the stamens, the absence of the corolla, and the nature of the flower, in the bottom of which appear five nectaria in a little pit, or cavity, which, however, appears to be a true calix, since it continues after the expansion of the parts, and retains its splendid colours till the period when the fruit has attained a considerable portion of its growth.

The five stamens, are united at the base, into a cylinder, which the style crosses; they have exactly the form of a monkey's hand. Before they extend themselves they resemble the hand shut, and afterwards they resemble the hand opened. The flowers are of a deep red, extremely brilliant. The avidity of the inhabitants to procure them, suffers few to arrive at maturity, and produce fruit. For this reason, sentinels were posted round the tree, in order that some of the seeds might be ob-

tained. But, in spite of every care, and all possible experiments, these seeds have as yet produced no plants.

The Botanists sent into New Spain, visited Toluca in 1787, solely for the purpose of observing, describing and designing this celebrated tree; from which they took several slips, or cuttings, of which *one* only, succeeded; and this is now a tree of forty five feet in height, in the garden of the royal palace at Mexico. There are reasons to hope that from this specimen, the genus may be multiplied; and perhaps, it may not be impossible to rear it in our hot houses, or green houses in Europe, where it would add to the wonders of nature which they contain.

Messrs. Humbolt and Bonpland saw this tree at Toluca, only; neither has it been seen any where else, excepting its offspring at Mexico; but they met with obscure accounts of its being common in regions very distant from this province.

We mention this rumour, with design to excite the attention of travellers; since specimens, whether shoots, or cuttings, or even seeds, of this singular vegetable, could not fail of being acceptable among our Botanists. Had the tree at Toluca been cut down, or otherwise destroyed, before it had been so carefully examined, what uncertainties might have prevailed on this *unique* subject!

HISTORY AND VIEW OF THE TEA TRADE,  
FROM AUTHENTIC DOCUMENTS.

[Vide Panorama, Vol. II. p. 147.]

To her enterprising spirit in the pursuits of commerce, Great-Britain is indebted for the exalted rank she bears among the nations of Europe. This is remarkably exemplified in the subject under consideration. TEA, at the beginning of the last century (1700), was scarcely known as a commodity of traffic: it now (1800) holds the most distinguished rank in the list of Asiatic imports. It is not only the most extensive, but the least fluctuating branch of the East India Company's concerns; nor are the advantages that result therefrom confined merely to the Company alone; the Public are deeply interested therein. It benefits navigation, by affording constant employment, out and home, for at least fifty thousand tons of British shipping, and six thousand seamen. It has been the means of opening an increasing market for the vend of one of the most important of our national manufactures (woollens), to an extent of one million sterling per annum, and it has, at all times, contributed largely in support of the public revenue. It appears that the duties of customs and excise paid upon Tea alone, exclusive of the charges of management, and the sums drawn back upon exportation, amounted in the years 1799 and

1800, on the average, to £1,670,000. The duties paid upon sugar in the like period are found to have netted £1,670,000 per annum. Allowing, therefore, which is a moderate computation, that only one-half of the sugar used in Great-Britain is consumed with Tea, and it may be fairly stated, that, immediately and remotely, the revenue is benefited by Tea to the extent of two millions sterling per annum.

The natural history of the Tea Tree, and the mode of preparing its leaves for use, are to be met with in the works of various authors. Its medical and alimentary properties have been largely discussed by the most able of the faculty,\* and the lyric muse has been repeatedly invoked to celebrate its praises, in the soft flowing numbers of tuneful verse.† Its commercial history alone is novel, and to a speculative mind may prove not altogether uninteresting.

The precise period at which Tea was first introduced into Europe is, in some measure, involved in obscurity. Anderson, whose authority on commercial points is in general to be relied upon, in his Chronological History of Commerce, vol. 2, page 178, Lond. Edit. 4to. 1778, observes, that the earliest author he met with, by whom Tea is mentioned, is Giovanni Botaro, a sensible Italian, who, in his work of the cause of the magnificence and greatness of cities, published 1590, says, "The Chinese have an herb, out of which they press a delicate juice, which serves them for a drink instead of wine; it also preserves their health, and frees them from all those evils, that the immoderate use of wine doth breed unto us." This is evidently sufficiently descriptive of Tea, though it is not mentioned by name. Dr. Lettsom has, however,

\* The reader, who is desirous of information on these heads, will be amply gratified by the perusal of Dr. Lettsom's Natural History of the Tea Tree, 4to, London, 1799. In the Doctor's work will also be found an extensive list of Authors, who have written upon Tea at various periods.

† Petri Petiti de Sinensi Herba Thea Cammen, 1685.—Joannes Nicolai Pechlini de eadem herba Epigraphæ.—Petri Francii in landem Thiae Sinensis Anacreontica duo.—Joannis Gothofredi Herrichen de Thea Doricum Melydron.

Waller addressed some lines to the Queen of Charles II. (the Infanta of Portugal) on her Majesty's commendation of Tea. Nahum Tate, Poet Laureat to her Majesty Queen Anne, wrote a poem on Tea, printed 1702, as did also Kien Long, the late Emperor of China, in 1746, printed in a French translation, by Father Amiot, one of the Chinese Missionaries in 1770, page 331.

shewn, that it had been the subject of notice before that period.

Renaudot refers to the testimony of two Arabian travellers, who visited China about the year 850, and reported, that the inhabitants of that empire had a medicinal beverage, named *Chah* or *Sah*, which was prepared by pouring boiling water on the dried leaves of a certain herb. This decoction was reckoned an efficacious remedy in a variety of maladies. *Renaudot, Anciennes Relations de la Chine et des Indes*, Paris, 1718, page 31.

Texeira, a Spaniard, who visited the East-Indies about 1600, saw the dried leaves at Malacca, and was there informed, that the inhabitants of China prepared a drink from the commodity. *Texeira, Relaciones del Origen de los Reyes de Persia y de Hormuz Amberes*, 1610, page 19.

Olearius, a German, found the custom of drinking tea prevalent among the Persians in 1633, and gives the following description: "They drink a kind of black water, prepared from the decoction of a certain shrub, called *Chia* or *Chia*, which the Usbeck Tartars import from China; the leaves are long and taper, measuring nearly an inch, of a black colour, when dried and welked, and shrivelled like worms." *Adam Olearii, Persianische Reise Beschreibung*, 1633, page 325, lib. v. cap. 17, page 599, folio 1656. Hamburg 1698, Amstel. 1660, 4to.

Starkaw, the Russian ambassador at the court of the Mogul, Chau Altyn, in 1639, partook of this beverage. "I know not," says he, "whether they are the leaves of a tree or an herb, they are boiled in water, with the addition of some milk." At his departure he was offered two hundred bachtcha of Tea, as a present for the Czar, Michael Romanoff; but the ambassador declined the compliment, as it would only encumber him with a commodity, for which he had no use. *Fischer's Sibirische Geschichte*, 1639, vol. ii. page 694.

Philippe Sylvestre Dufour in his *Traité nouveau & curieux du Caffé, Thé, & Chocolat, à la Haye*, 1693, remarks, "that Tea is in great repute in China, Japan, Tonquin and Tartary; that after making its way into India it passed to Persia, and from thence to Turkey, in which latter place the use of it was not very general, as the Turks gave a decided preference to Coffee."

Sir George Staunton, who attended Lord Macartney on his embassy to China, observes, "That Tea was not known in any part of Europe before the commencement of the seventeenth century; that some Dutch adventurers, seeking about that time for such objects as might fetch a price in China, and hearing of the general use there of a beverage from a plant of the country, bethought themselves

of trying how far an European plant, of supposed great virtues, might also be relished by the Chinese, and thereby become a saleable commodity amongst them, and accordingly introduced to them the herb SAGE, so much once extolled by the Salernian School of Physic, as a powerful preservative of Health; the Dutch accepting in return the Chinese Tea, which they brought to Europe. The European herb ( he adds ) did not continue long in use in China, but the consumption of Tea has been gradually encreasing in Europe ever since. \*

Dr. Lettsom concurs as to the time of its introduction by the Dutch, but thinks it probable, that it was brought from Japan, to which place they traded very considerably about that period. †

The Editors of the Encyclopædia Britannica state that it was first imported by the Dutch in 1610. ‡

It is most certain, that in 1611 the agents of the Dutch East-India Company solicited and obtained a grant from the Emperor of Japan, allowing them to trade in his territories. The Dutch caused it to be reported at the time, that this treaty was concluded at the Hague by ambassadors sent from Japan by the Emperor for that purpose in 1609. This was done with a view to deter the English, who were becoming their formidable rivals in every part of India, from attempting to traffic with Japan. Such a declaration was perfectly consistent with the narrow policy which the Dutch have ever manifested in the government of their commercial concerns. They were the first to oppose the unreasonable doctrines attempted to be enforced by the Portuguese, of original discoveries and previous intercourse conferring exclusive rights; but having succeeded in establishing themselves in several parts of India, they became equally desirous of shutting out all competitors. To a person who has the least pretensions to any knowledge of the manners, the customs and the genius of the Eastern nations, the absurdity of the report of this embassy from Japan to Holland will be at once apparent. Anderson slightly alludes to it under the year 1609, as "a circumstance that seems incredible to many." But it is past a doubt that the fact was as subsequently recorded by him, "that in 1611 the Dutch East-India Company's ambassadors or envoys, in a solemn embassy to the Emperor of Japan, in the city of Meaco, obtained very advantageous terms of commerce, notwith-

standing all the opposition of the Spanish and Portuguese agents there." \*

The treaty was effected through the medium of letters addressed to the Emperor by Prince Maurice, then at the head of the Dutch Government. An interchange of presents took place, agreeable to the invariable usage among the Eastern nations on all diplomatic occasions, and in that made by the Emperor, doubtless Tea was included, as one of the natural productions of his country. This account, in a very satisfactory manner, for the introduction of Tea into Holland, but greatly as I esteem the authorities above quoted, I must confess I cannot, with equal readiness, yield my assent to this being the first appearance of Tea in Europe. I make this declaration with great diffidence, being fully aware, that what I have to offer against such respectable opinions, will amount to no more than a conjecture: but when I consider that the Portuguese, immediately after their discovery of a passage to India by the way of the Cape of Good Hope in 1497, formed extensive establishments in almost every part of that country; that they resided in great numbers in Japan, long before the Dutch made their appearance at that place; that they had a trading intercourse with China direct, and had sent an ambassador to the Court of Pekin, as early as 1517; and, above all, that they obtained a settlement upon Macao in 1580; I think it a fair presumption, that the inhabitants of Portugal could not, for more than an entire century, have remained strangers to a commodity that was so familiar to their countrymen in every part of Asia.

The lines of Waller addressed to Catherine, the Queen of Charles the Second, daughter of John King of Portugal, tend much, in my opinion, to strengthen, if not altogether to confirm this conjecture. In a congratulatory ode on one of her birth-days, the subject of which was "On her Majesty's Commendation of Tea," he says:

" The best of Queens, and best of herbs we owe  
" To that bold nation, who the way did shew  
" To the fair region where the sun does rise,  
" Whose rich productions we so justly prize." \*

But be this as it may, the Dutch East-India Company were unquestionably the first who engaged in Tea as an article of commerce, and from the beginning until near the close of the seventeenth century, the whole of the European demand was supplied through the medium of their sales. The quantities that were imported during this period are, perhaps, to be ascertained only by referring to the Dutch Company's books. It is sufficient, however, in this place, to remark, that they must have been comparatively trifling. Its principal channel of expenditure was in the department

\* Staunton's Authentic Account of the British Embassy to China, 1797, 4to., vol. i. page 21.

† Dr. Lettsom's Nat. Hist. Tea Plant. 4 to, 1799, page 25.

‡ Encyclopædia Britannica, 4to. Article Tea.

\* Anderson, vol. ii. page 244.

of medicine, where it failed of obtaining any considerable degree of reputation, owing to the discordant opinions that were held by the faculty with regard to its properties.

In 1635 Simon Pauli publicly declared against it, in a Treatise entitled, "Comment. de abuso Tabaci et herbae Theæ," in which he was followed by many others, who concurred with him in opinion as to the use of it being attended with injurious effects. On the other hand, Tea was not without its advocates, by whom it was as highly extolled for its virtues. Thus circumstanced, it could hardly be expected that Tea should make any rapid advances in the public estimation. Valentyn, a native of the Netherlands, relates, that in 1670 the use of it was unknown in his native town of Dordt.\* About that time, he adds, Vanden Brouke and Dr. De Leonardis attempted to introduce the practice of drinking the infusion as a beverage, but with so little success, that it was publicly ridiculed, under the name of *Heu Wasser* (Hay Water).

About 1673 Tea met with a powerful supporter in Dr. Cornelius Bontekoe. This gentleman, whose eminence in his profession had raised him to the situation of first Physician to the Elector of Brandenburgh, entertained the highest opinion of its salutary qualities, and denied the possibility of its injuring the stomach, even if taken so far as two or three hundred cups in the day.†

The sanction of so respectable an authority had its operation in relieving Tea from many of the prejudices that had been entertained against it; but the high price at which it continued to be vended prevented the consumption from being materially increased. In fact, Tea has never been in very extensive use upon the Continent, nor would it probably have attracted the attention of foreigners, as a distinct object of commerce, had they not in more recent periods availed themselves of the opportunities that offered of participating in the supply of this country, through the medium of a contraband trade.

Having thus given a brief statement of the progress of Tea upon the Continent to the close of the seventeenth century, I shall next proceed to shew, that at the like period its advances had not been more rapid in this country.

The use of Tea had obtained in England, long before the Company adopted it as an ar-

\* Franz Valentyn. *Oud en nieuw Oost Indien IV.* Deel. ii. Stuck-page 18.

† Corn. Bontekoe van Thé, Coffy en Chocolate, Haage, 2 Edit. 1685. I have been credibly informed that the Dutch Company were so highly pleased with this work that they voted the author a handsome pecuniary gratification.

title of their established imports, but when or by whom it was first introduced I have not been able, after much research, to ascertain with any direct certainty. The philanthropic Jonas Hanway, asserts, that a quantity of it was first brought from Holland, in the baggage of the Lords Arlington and Ossory, in the year 1666, by whom it was introduced among the nobility as a novelty.\* Sir John Hawkins in his Life of Dr. Johnson, is of opinion Mr. Hanway is not quite accurate on this head, and cites the ode of Waller to the Queen to prove that, in 1683, it was considered as a new thing, † but it is evident that neither of these gentlemen is correct. It has again been held by others that Tea was unknown in 1660, because it is not to be found among the established articles of import specified in the book of rates, referred to in the Act 12 Charles II. ch. 4, commonly called the Tonnage and Poundage Act. The same observation is equally applicable to Coffee and Chocolate. This I am ready to admit, affords conclusive evidence that neither of these articles was considered at the time of sufficient importance to merit a place among the materials of commerce; but that they were all known and all in previous use, is placed beyond the possibility of doubt, by referring to two Acts of Parliament passed in the year, 12 Charles II. ch. 23 and 24, the one granting to his Majesty an inland or excise duty on certain commodities therein named during his life, the other in perpetuity, as a compensation, in lieu of the advantages that were derived from the Courts of Wards and Liveries and Tenures in Capite, which had been given up. By each of these Acts it is directed, that there shall be paid,

For every gallon of Coffee made and sold, to be paid by the makers thereof, - - - - - Four-pence

For every gallon of Chocolate, Sherbet, and Tea, made and sold, to be paid by the makers thereof, - - - - - Eight-pence

To this, in the year 1670, by an Act 22 and 23 Charles II. ch. 5, was added a further addition of the like sums, by which the duty on Tea was increased to two shillings per gallon.

The singular mode of taxation, so different from the modern practice, will not, I am apprehensive, at the present day, be very readily understood, I shall therefore take leave to advert to a few circumstances which I trust will at once afford the needful explanation, and at the same time prove not altogether irrelevant to the main object.

[To be continued]

\* Hanway's Eight Days Journey, 1758, Vol. II. page 694.

† Hawkins's Life of Dr. Johnson, page 353.

## NECROLOGY.

MICHAEL ADANSON, MEMBER OF THE ACADEMY OF SCIENCES, THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE, &c. &c.

This famous traveller, of whom we have selected the following brief biographical sketch, from notices communicated by Lejoyard, was born at Aix in Provence, in the year 1727. He finished his studies at Paris, in the Colleges of St. Barbe and Duplessis.—Here he obtained the first prize in Greek and Latin poetry, by which he procured a Pliny and an Aristotle. Without doubt, the reading of these two authors contributed much to the development of his taste for natural science, with which he afterwards occupied his whole life. In 1740, when scarcely 13 years old, he had written important notes on these authors; but he soon laid books aside, to study the laws of nature, in the whole of the relations of being, or, as he termed it, existence itself. Naturalists, at that period, limited the catalogue of species to about 14 or 15,000; but his collection of 33,000 appeared to him greatly deficient.—Having determined to render it complete, he found himself under the necessity of travelling, especially to Africa. He, therefore, sailed in October, 1748, to Senegal. In 1749 he visited the Canary Islands, and forwarded his first discoveries to the Academy of Sciences, which received him, in 1750, as a corresponding member. In Senegal itself, that rich country, then little known, he spent five years in researches and observations. He made a multitude of discoveries in natural history. But not satisfied with these, he wished also to benefit the arts and commerce: for this purpose he took a journey through the most fruitful and best situated part of Senegal, of which he composed a chart. He followed the course of the Niger, and, lastly, he completed a chart of a district of seven leagues, to elucidate a plan of a colony wherein the forests, salt-springs, mussel-banks, lakes, &c. &c. were particularly laid down. His inquiries led him to the discovery of the two kinds of real gum arabic; and, after repeated trials, he succeeded, while in Senegal, in procuring from the Indigo plant a deep blue extract, different from the American indigo; a most valuable discovery, which had escaped the repeated trials of the most expert manufacturers of indigo, whom the India Company had sent, at different times, from America to Senegal. At the request of this Company, in 1758, he sketched a plan for an establishment in Senegal for the better cultivation of the country\*, wherein he shew-

ed, that the culture of indigo, cotton, tobacco (the best which is known), of rice, Mocha coffee, cocoa, pepper, ginger, the Molucca spices, &c. &c. would here acquire an uncommon degree of excellence, by means of the heat of this climate. Adanson further shewed, that by good behaviour to the Kings of Balam and Bambook, permission might easily be obtained to work the rich gold mines of this country, which are more productive than those of Peru or of Mexico; that they would bring in yearly half a million sterling, which amount might be trebled; that the gum would produce an equal or larger sum; the trade in negroes of the finest race; the sale of wax, senna, dyeing woods, salt, raw hides, maize, &c. &c. would amount to 2 or £300,000; but the project was never carried into execution.

October 6, 1753, Adanson returned from Senegal to France, with a prodigious collection of philosophical, moral, political and economical observations, on the government of the very different nations in whose countries he had travelled, and with physical observations on almost 30,000 unknown species of subjects in natural history, which, together with the 33,000 already known, gave to this science a basis of 63,000 subjects, afterwards increased, as he often said, to more than 90,000.

Soon after his return from Senegal, he obtained from Louis XV. the superintendence of the botanic garden at Trianon, under the title of Naturalist to the King, and was thereupon received a member of the Academy of Sciences, in the third class, as adjunct botanist, and the history of this Academy does ample justice to his industry in this department.

In 1760, when he was called by the Emperor to establish an Academy in Louvaine, according to his plan of natural science, he received, at the same time, a letter from Linnaeus, offering him a situation in the Academy at Upsal. Another very different proposal was made to him from England in the following year; which, in like manner, he refused. After the conquest of Senegal, Lord North, who was deeply interested in the trade of the English Senegal Company, sent Mr. Cumming (who, next to himself, was the most interested) to Adanson, to procure if possible, either the originals, or copies of his papers, relative to the natural productions and articles of commerce of Senegal. In 1762, at the request of the Duke de Choiseul, he completed two important works for his country, viz.—A very copious plan for a new arrangement of the colonies of Cayenne and Guyana; and another for Goree; which services were never rewarded. In 1766, the emperor of Russia made him very advantageous offers to induce him to come to St. Peters-

\* His labours deserve great attention from those worthy persons, who, since the abolition of the Slave Trade, interest themselves in the welfare of Africa.

burgh as member of the Academy, and there to lecture on Natural History according to his own plan: a similar offer had been made him by the Spanish Court: both were refused.

In 1707 he took a journey into Normandy, and Britanny, at his own charge, which had for its object the Natural History of those countries. He met with nothing particularly to disturb him, till 1775; when he had the mortification to be disappointed in his expectation of succeeding to Buffon's office; this was given to M. d'Angivilliers, and the seventeen years' services of Adanson were thought to be rewarded by a yearly pension of 2,000 francs. He was the more hurt, as this office promised much to facilitate the publication of an *Encyclopædia* of Natural History in one hundred and twenty volumes, comprising 75,000 figures, with which he was at that time occupied. The plan of this work he laid before the Academy of Sciences in a *Memoir*, in 1775. The society appointed a commission to examine it, which made a very favourable report. The completion of this plan was postponed; yet he lived in expectation of accomplishing it, till the period of the revolution, which completely annihilated all his hopes. Nevertheless, he still continued diligently to pursue the object of his studies; and in 1779 he visited the highest mountains of Europe, whence he brought more than 29,000 specimens of different minerals, and drawings of more than 1,200 leagues of mountainous district. At a still later period, though already under the pressure of years, he offered to accompany La Peyrouse in his voyage, but was refused. As possessor of one of the most numerous cabinets, which contained, at least 65,000 species of productions of the three Kingdoms of Nature, in a threefold manner, in nature, in engravings, and in descriptions; he requested a situation in the Louvre sufficiently spacious to contain them, and thereupon he received a new pension of 1,800 livres. But it was late before he received the full pension from the Academy, through the death of Fougerous in 1789.

In the beginning of the revolution, his experimental garden, in which he had more than 130 species of mulberry trees, with a view to perfect their cultivation, was destroyed by the plunderers; but what pained him most, was the destruction of his hopes of uniting his many observations on nature in the above mentioned *Encyclopædia*. His situation became now so uncomfortable, that in the long winter evenings, for want of wood and candles, he was unable to pursue his labours. The Minister Benezech procured him some little assistance; and Benezech's successor, François de Neufchateau, did all for him which could be done in such unhappy times. Afterwards, also when he was no more Minister, he provided for him every way. However, he was obliged to live very much confined, to a house little

better than a hut, in the street Chantereine, (now Victoire) which he found very injurious to his health; for since his return from his African journey, the rheumatic pains to which he was subject, rendered him ill able to bear moisture or cold. Here he passed almost the whole day, in the small place where he cultivated his plants, sitting crosslegged to observe these plants and shoots; but in the night, he laboured so diligently in his closet, that his housekeeper was obliged to remind him very often, that he had not been in bed for several nights successively. This female attendant, who had served him since 1783, was a real treasure to him; without her, most probably in the last fourteen sorrowful years of his life, all his finest works, with perhaps all his discoveries, and his extensive collection, would have been lost. This person, who supplied to him the place of relations, friends, and fortune, served him the whole time; even when he suffered the want of necessities of life, of wood, light, linen, and clothes, in the greatest stillness by day, and worked in the night, to buy him sugar and coffee, without which, he could not live. In the mean time, her husband who served another master in Picardy, sent him weekly, bread, meat, and vegetables; and even added money to the other supplies, till at last, as the old man grew weaker, he came to him himself, and never left him in his greatest poverty. However, in time this distress terminated; the emperor who had been informed of the circumstance, sent him 3,000 livres, wherewith the good people managed so frugally, that they always answered those who remanded them that upon application the donation would be repeated, that "they had yet enough." In this situation this worthy Literato closed his laborious life, which had deserved a more favourable lot, in the year 1806, aged 79.

#### COMPLIMENTARY TERMS LIABLE TO ABUSE.

Intercourse of every kind in polished society, departs somewhat from those direct expressions which uncultivated nature employs to convey its sentiments, or make known its sensations. It is not enough that ideas are conveyed; they must be conveyed in the most agreeable manner, if their import be agreeable; in the least offensive manner, of which they are capable, if their import be offensive. This conduct arises from mutual respect, which manifests itself in endeavours to avoid whatever may create a distaste; and to augment whatever may produce satisfaction. It is the very reverse of indifference; and its chief aim is, by a dexterous kind of imperceptible flattery, to render the party with whom our intercourse is maintained, better pleased with himself than he could be without such attentions. Politeness honours in another, those acquisitions which it gives him credit for having made; hence, in our first acquaintance

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with strangers, we attribute to them various qualities, which as it *may be* they have attained, we suppose they really have attained. In like manner, we have no right to fancy persons of elevated rank, deficient in any accomplishment which becomes them; but we infer from their actual occupation of their station, whatever it be, that they are fitted for it, and adequate to it both in mental talents, and in previous preparations. That these sentiments may degenerate into mere expressions, till there is not even a semblance of reality left, must be acknowledged; and after a time, terms of respect become so hackneyed, by having been employed on all occasions, proper and improper, that they no longer convey the same ideas, but are absolute expletives, used because custom demands a something; and the occasion is too trifling to engage our researches after any thing better.

It must however be acknowledged, that every nation has phrases of the same kind, from the impossible "O king live for ever!" to the Spanish diminutive of that sublime salutation, "May your honour live a thousand years!" This wish is now as impossible, as the former; it is equally incapable of vindication if strictly taken, while it is much less impressive. "I have the honour to kiss your hands," says one, by way of farewell salutation in a letter; "I am your very humble servant," says another; "Command my best services," says a third. But custom has annexed a meaning understood or qualified, rather than literally included in these words. Nobody is deceived by them, and they may well enough be retained, till something better not liable to ambiguity or perversion, be proposed by way of substitute, and established by general convention and usage.

Such are some of the observations of a correspondent, in a note which accompanied the following translation from the French, with which he has honoured our work, and which we have now the pleasure to submit to our readers.

In France, and in Paris especially, the word *pleasure* is a mere matter of form; there is less pleasure than noise and bustle; the word is used by every mouth, without ever expressing its real meaning. A gentleman has the *pleasure* of seeing you, the *pleasure* of writing to you, the *pleasure* of meeting you, and the *pleasure* of hearing you, though he does not pay the least attention to what you are saying to him. If you put a question to him, he will tell you he has had the *pleasure* of dining at Mr. Such-a-one's, where he was worried to death. If you invite him to your house, he will answer, "with great *pleasure*;" but will not go. If a lady request the favour of his arm, "with great *pleasure*, Madam," answers he, while he curses that politeness which summones him from his own business. When you are praising an absent friend, you desire

him to listen to you, "with great *pleasure*," he will reply; yet he abhors the person you are commanding. He has the *honour* of writing to persons of distinction, he has the *pleasure* of writing to his equals, but has neither honour nor pleasure when writing to his inferiors. But do not trust to those distinctions; he often despises the man whom he has the *honour* to address; and often sits gaping while penning the letter he has the *pleasure* to write. Yet, he seldom finds any amusement, or is treated with regard, but on account of his keeping company with those to whom he writes, without either honour or pleasure.

#### SUGGESTIONS ON THE CRIMES AND PUNISHMENT OF GEORGE, DUKE OF CLARENCE.

The character of King Richard III. especially as drawn by Shakespeare, is so deeply overwhelmed in blood, that other characters, his contemporaries, though very guilty, yet being less guilty than he is, appear comparatively innocent. Of this we have an instance in George Duke of Clarence, whose untimely end draws from us a kind of pity, but pity warranted only by comparison; for, were this prince drawn in his true colours, we could not but hate him, and that decidedly. The Poet himself makes him confess some facts extremely vile; when rehearsing his dream of what happened to him in his visit to the kingdom of perpetual night.

The first that there did greet my stranger soul,  
Was my great father-in-law, renowned Warwick;  
Who cried aloud—*What scourge for perjury*  
*Can this dark monarchy afford false Clarence?*  
And so he vanish'd. Then came wond'ring by,  
A sha'low like an angel, with bright hair  
Dabbled in blood; and he shriek'd out aloud,  
*Clarence is come—false fleeting perjur'd Clarence,*  
*That stab'd me in the field by Tewksbury;*  
*Seize on him, Furies! take him to your torments!*

These public crimes were so well known, that even the murderers of Clarence reproach him with them, observing,

And that same vengeance doth he hurl on thee,  
For false forswearing, and for murder too:  
Thou didst receive the sacrament, to fight  
In quarrel of the House of Lancaster. —  
And, like a traitor to the name of God,  
Did'st break that vow; and with thy treacherous  
b'ad'e

Upris'dst the bowels of thy sovereign's son,  
Whom thou wast sworn to cherish and defend.

But there were less known vices in the character of the Duke of Clarence, which vindicate the justice of Providence in bringing upon him a retribution for actions committed, not in the heat of military fury, but—cold-blooded murder. He was also, to say the least, unjustly avaricious; nor is he free from suspi-

cion of having looked forward, too much in the manner of Richard himself.

We have no design to support Horace Walpole in clearing the character of Richard; but the same evidence as proves that Clarence was unjust, proves that Richard had more causes of enmity against him, than our historians have acquainted us with.

Among the Paston Letters is one, from John Paston, Knight, dated February 17, 1471, 11th Edward IV. in which we read, "Yestday the Kyng, the Queen, my Lordes of Claraunce and Gloucestre wente to Scheen to pardons men sey not alle in cheryte. What wyll falle men cannot seye.

" The Kyng entreyth my Lorde off Clarence for my Lorde of Gloucestre; and as it is seyde, he answerythe, that he may weell have my Ladys hys sust' in lawe; butt they schall part no lyfthod, as he seythe. So what wyll falle can I not seye."

The key to this letter is furnished by Sir J. Fenn the editor.

It appears that the Duke of Clarence had married Isabel, one of the daughters and co-heirs of the great Earl of Warwick; and in consequence of this alliance, had sworn to take the part of his father-in law; this oath he broke. Prince Edward had married the other daughter Anne; and this prince was cruelly murdered at Tewksbury; in the guilt of which our historians say, that Richard Duke of Gloucester, and his brother Clarence, were both partakers. Whatever other motives Clarence might have for this bloody deed, it is clear that he reaped the fruits of it, by enjoying the whole of the possessions of the Earl of Warwick, his wife Isabel being the eldest daughter. It appears then, that he intended to deprive the youngest daughter Anne, of her proper share; and that his answer was to the Duke of Gloucester, who proposed to marry Anne, now a widow, that " he might marry that lady if he pleased; but that he (Clarence) should relinquish no part of her share in her father's possessions." It appears that the King entreated Clarence to obey the dictates of justice and honour; and to admit his brother to what should be his right, as the property of his wife. To this injunction, for such it really was, Clarence was deaf; and so, though the whole family went to Sheen to confession and pardon, yet, the angry temper of their minds, as the letter-writer justly observes, was inconsistent with Christian charity. Neither did Clarence abate his misconduct; for in another letter from the same person, dated April 15, 1473, 13th Edward IV. therefore more than two years after the former, we read—

*To John Paston Esqer at Norwiche be thys d'd.*

Wyrshypfull and well belovyd Brother, I command me to yow letyng you weet yt the Worlde semyth qweysye heer flor the most

part that be abowt the Kyng have sende hyddr flor ther harneys and it seyd flor serteyn that ye Duke off Clarence makyth hym bygge in that he kan schewyng as he wold dele wt the Duke of Gloucestre but the Kyng enten-  
thyt in eschewyng all Inconvenyents to be as bygge as they bothe and to be a stysfier aweyn them, and som men thynke yt undre thys ther sholde be som other thinge entendyd and som treason conspyred so what shall falle can I not seye."

It is clear that the Duke of Clarence intended to resist by force of arms, the claims which Richard, who had lately married Anne, sister to Isabel, Duchess of Clarence, preferred, and justly, to his wife's share of the Earl her father's property. Armour, (harneys) is sent for by the most part of those who are about the King's person; because the Duke of Clarence is strengthening himself all in his power against the Duke of Gloucester; and if he should succeed in repelling that Duke, with whom the king sided, some men thought that he would not be content with that, but that the king himself might find a traitor in his brother Clarence; who might employ against the crown, those levies which he had pretended to raise for self-defence only.

It cannot now be denied, that it was the part of prudence in Edward, to watch Clarence, if not indeed, to shnt him up; and that Richard, provoked by the refusal of Clarence, should urge the king to severities against him, appears to be a much more natural consequence of Clarence's own misconduct; and a stronger cause of enmity on the part of the Duke of Gloucester, than has hitherto appeared in the relations of our best informed historians.

But this inference is greatly strengthened, if it could be proved that Clarence was of a violent and oppressive disposition; that he did not scruple any means to effect his purposes; and that he had overborne even the judicial institutions of his country, and what Englishmen should support (not pervert) at the peril of their lives. We have lately perused a proof of this also, of which the following is a transcript:—

" The manor of Keyford (Somerset) was some time the property of the ancient family of Twyniho. Among the memoirs of this family I find a circumstance, which, as it throws light on a character but imperfectly sketched in the English history, and exhibits a specimen of the irregularities attending, at that period, the administration of public justice, may not seem unworthy of mention. It appears that their house was one day suddenly surrounded and broken open by a great number of people, who without writ or warrant seized on the person of Ankerette, widow of William Twyniho. This riotous party were headed by

one Hyde, of Warwick, and a Roger Strugge, of some place in the neighbourhood, tucker. They forcibly conveyed the poor woman (who was equally ignorant of the cause of her imprisonment and of the measures which were about to be pursued against her) to the city of Bath, where for a night they halted. She had not been allowed to bring a servant with her, nor even to stay a moment in her house in order to accommodate herself with any articles of apparel. The day following her arrival at Bath, she was conveyed to Cirencester, in Gloucestershire, and hurried thence to Warwick, a distance of seventy miles from her home. Here, by order of George Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV. who had directed the business from the beginning, she was deprived of all the money, jewels, &c. found about her person, and put into a place of confinement. Her daughter, who, anxious for her safety, and desirous of tracing out the object of this forcible and unlawful proceeding, had followed with some relations and servants, was commanded by the Duke to leave Warwick without delay, and lodge the same night at Stratford upon Avon, under pain of death. On the third day of her detention, the unfortunate prisoner was carried to the Guildhall of Warwick (where the Justices of the Peace were holding their general sessions), and charged with having " maliciously and damably" intended the death of Isabell, wife of George, Duke of Clarence, whose servant she had been. Being called upon to state the evidence of this intention, her prosecutors swore that she had administered unto the said Isabell, " venomous drynke of ale myxt with poyson, to poyson and selle the said Isabell, of which drynke the said Isabell sekynyd fro the 10th daye of Octobre, unto the Sonday next before the fest of the Nativite of our Lorde then next following (A. D. 1478) which Sonday she then and therof dyed." To these heinous charges Ankerete Twyniho pleaded not guilty. The jury, after having heard the regular process of trial, being about to consult together, were so intimidated by the menaces of the Duke and his party, who attended in the court, that they at once delivered a verdict of " guilty," whereupon the Justices pronounced sentence of death, and the wretched lady was dragged through the middle of the town of Warwick, to the gallows, on which she was without ceremony hanged.—These particulars are collected from a petition which appears on the rolls of Parliament, (17 Edward IV.); and that no doubt was entertained of the utter falsehood of the charges is proved by the object of that petition being granted, in consequence of which the record of the indictment, the process, verdict, and judgment, and all things depending upon the same were annulled, repealed, and made void.—We can make but one inference from the barbarous proceedings of the Duke of Clarence, yet it is a matter of

wonder that none of our historians (at least, so far as I can discover) throw out the most distant hint of this prince having committed so horrible murder;—much less do they inform us of the transaction that I have recited. In looking back to contemporary events, however, I think we shall find our suspicions of his guilt too strongly supported to be staggered. The very year in which the Duchess is stated to have been murdered, the Duchess Dowager of Burgundy, in order to answer some purposes of state, offered her daughter Maria, heiress to the Duchy, in marriage to Clarence, just then become a widower.\* That his wife should have died by natural means at a period so critical, and so fortunate for the interests of the Duke, to whom the proposal from the Duchess of Burgundy must have been in the highest degree flattering, may with good reason be doubted; and, as he wedded her more for the sake of cementing his connection with her father, (the *king-making* Earl of Warwick), than from motives of affection, it does not seem probable that so unprincipled a man would feel any scruple to dispatch her. Be this as it may, his enemies prevented him from accepting the hand of a second wife, by procuring from the king a death-warrant for himself. Habington's words on the subject of the charges exhibited against him, are deserving of remark: "In his attainder, (says he) according to the forme, are *crimes enough to make his death have appearance of justice*, the execution of which, the king seemed rather constrained to, than to have sought."† For my part, I cannot help entertaining an idea, that the historians inimical to Richard III. might have purposely concealed any charge on the score of the Duchess's death, in order to make the apparent iniquity of her husband's execution a matter of accusation against that monarch."—*Maton's Observations on the Antiquities, &c. of Western Counties of England*, Vol. II. p. 171.

As Clarence appears to have acted the tyrant at Warwick, it seems a natural inference, that he retained the Warwick possessions in spite of the King and his brother; and if the Duke of Gloucester had patiently borne his privation from respect to the king, his behaviour is certainly entitled to its full effect, in relieving his character from those imputations with which it has been charged.

Is it possible to conclude this discussion, without comparing the happier days in which Providence has cast our lot, as Englishmen? or without acquiescing in the principle already stated, that the retributions of Providence, could we accurately trace them, are more correctly proportioned to the guilt of individuals, than can always be discerned by the public eye?

\* *Habington's History of Edward IV.* p. 188.

† *Ibid. page 192.*

## ANECDOTE OF QUEEN ELIZABETH'S FONDNESS FOR DRESS.

If we may judge by the pictures extant of Queen Elizabeth and her courtiers, later times have not seen more costly and splendid apparel, than was worn in her magnificent court. Profusion of ornament was studied; and we know not whether jewels, velvets, satins with rich decorations, and materials of dress, were not more abundant, or more public in that age, than since. The distresses of the civil wars certainly impoverished many noble families, and rendered them incapable of that superb appearance, of which those availed themselves who received valuable jewels of various kinds from their ancestors. We know that the crown jewels were alienated by Charles I. in his misfortunes; and though the female reign of Anne might be supposed favourable to personal splendour, yet customs were changed; the length of Anne's reign did not equal that of Elizabeth; and the mode of making court to the sovereign by presents, no longer prevailed. However, these things might be, certain it is, that Queen Elizabeth piqued herself on being the sovereign of her court as well in costly apparel, as in every other appendage to royalty. The following extracts may be taken in support of this assertion; they prove at the same time, that the strongest minds have their weak, their very weak, places.

It appears that proper attention to this fable, was a direct way to the Queen's favour. The Harrington Papers, vol. 2, p. 230, inform us, that in order to recover some lands which had been forfeited to the crown, and whereon a law suit was depending, the representative of the family had hopes of favour from this disposition of the Queen.

" Yet I will adventure (says the writer) to give her Majestie five hundred pounds in money, and some pretty jewel or garment as you shall advise, onlie praying her Majestie to further my suite with some of her lerned counsel; which I pray you to find some proper time to move in; this some hold as a dangerous adventure; but five and twentie manors well warrant my trying it."

It is noted as a mark of the Queen's disturbance of mind at the time of Essex's attempt against the government, that " it is an ill hour for seeing the Queen, she is quite disfavoured and unattired, and these troubles waste her

muche. She walks in her privy chamber, and stamps with her feet at ill news [from the city] and thrusts her rusty sword into the arras, in great rage. The dangers are over, and yet she always keeps a sword by her table.

" I could not move in any suit to serve your neighbour B. such was the face of things, and so disordered is all order, that *Her Highnesse hath worne but one change of raiment for many days*, and swears much at those who cause her griefs in such wise, to the no small discomfiture of all about her; more especially, our sweete Lady Arundel, that *Venus plus quam venusta.*" Vol. 2, p. 65. 66.

I wyll tell a storie that fell oute when I was a boye. She did love rich clothynge, but often chid those that bought more finery than became their state. It happened that Ladie M. Howarde was possesede of a rich border powderd wyth golde and pearle, and a velvet suite belonging thereto, which moved manie to envy; nor did it please the Queene, who thought it exceeded her owne. One daye the Queen did send privately, and got the Ladie's rich vesture, which she put on herself, and came forthe the chamber amonge the Ladies; the kirtle and border was far too shorte for her Majesties heighth; and she askede every one, how they liked her new fancied suit? At lengthe she askede the owner herself, if it was not made too short and ill-becoming? Which the poor Ladie did presentlie consente to. " Why then, if it become not me, as being too short, I am minded it shall never become thee, as being too fine; so it fitteth neither well." This sharp rebuke abashed the Ladie, and she never adorned her herewith any more. I believe the vestment was laid up till after the Queenes death. Vol. 2, p. 140.

Hume in his History of England, in the reign of Elizabeth, gives the following account of this Queen's fondness for magnificent apparel. " Among other species of luxury, that of apparel began much to increase in this age; and the Queen thought proper to restrain it by proclamation. Her example was very little conformable to her edicts. As no woman was ever more conceited of her beauty, or more desirous of making impressions on the hearts of beholders, no one ever went to a greater extravagance in apparel, or studied more the variety and richness of her dresses. She appeared almost every day in a different habit; and tried all the several modes by which she hoped to render herself agreeable. She was also so fond of her clothes, that she never could part with any of them; and at her death, she had in her wardrobe all the different habits, to the number of 3,000, which she had ever worn in her life time."

**INQUIRY PROPOSED AS TO THE ANCIENT  
EXCELLENCE OF ENGLISH SHIPPING ;  
ALSO, AS TO THE ANTIQUITY OF THE MA-  
RINER'S COMPASS.**

Having incidentally supposed in our last number, p. 11, that the Holy Land was the furthest distance to which voyages could be made from England at the time of the Crusades in the twelfth century, it has occurred to us to notice the extent of those made in the tenth century, by order of King Alfred, who possessed the art of navigation in as great excellence as any monarch of his time.

The Saxon Chronicle relates that this King made a vow that he would send alms to the disciples of St. Thomas, in the East-Indies: and that he performed his vow, to the great admiration of his contemporaries who saw the precious stones, perfumes, and other valuables, brought back by his ships from the eastern climates. We cannot suppose, that the ships of Alfred sailed to the East-Indies: they might, however, visit Alexandria in Egypt, or some port in the Levant, which furnished the curious products brought home by the agents of this prince. It should be remembered, that Alfred when a boy, had visited Rome, where, probably, he acquired much information concerning the East, and the state of the Christians there. Nor could he be ignorant of the passage from the ocean into the Mediterranean: he was, therefore, well able to instruct his mariners on the nature and requisites of this voyage. A corroboration of this fact, is, the voyage of Abel, Patriarch of Jerusalem, into Britain, to visit Alfred; which is positively affirmed by Asser, Bishop of Sherborne, who saw, and conversed with this Patriarch. It is certain, that tradition preserved the memory of these voyages ages after the Crusades, so that the Crusades had only to renew in 1100, the course of Alfred's vessels, 200 years before. Only stout ships could have accomplished this expedition. Ships equally well fitted out, were required for that no less courageous undertaking of Alfred's marine, the attempt to discover a north east passage to India. This was conducted by Oether, a Norwegian, who communicated to Alfred an account of the whale fishery, as practised very far north, by his countrymen. Succeeding events in England obliterated all traces of Oether and his voyage, for 700 years; but in reality the navigators of Queen Elizabeth's days did not follow the track taken so long before by that great seaman.

As we had in view only to prove the skill of those ages in ship building, we might here close this notice, but as a subject analogous

to the foregoing, we subjoin, hints on a work which has lately appeared in Paris, entitled, "A Dissertation on the Origin of the Mariner's Compass," by M. Dom-Alb. Azuni, Judge of the Maritime Tribunal of Nice. 8vo. pp. 133.

M. Azuni published in 1795 at Florence, a dissertation, in Italian, on the same subject, this he has enlarged, in consequence of new researches, and he now boldly ascribes the first use of the mariner's compass to the French. The greater part of modern writers acknowledge Flavio Gioia, otherwise called Flavio, of Amalfi (a Neapolitan), as the inventor; and they fix the epoch of its use to the year 1302. Others think, that Marcus Paulus, the Venetian, who travelled into China, brought this invention with him in 1260. And this supposition is confirmed by the manner in which the compass was at first used, in Italy: which was exactly that of the Chinese, who let it float at liberty in a small basin of water wherein it is kept buoyant by a little piece of cork. The Chinese, also, divide their compass into 24 points; so that they do not appear to have received it from the Europeans, who divide their instrument into 32 points. The Chinese affirm that it was known to their Emperor Chinangius, 1120 years *ante A. D.* M. Azuni does not forget to quote the poem of Guyot de Provence about A. D. 1200, which seems to describe the compass under the term *marinette*, or *mariner's stone*; this is 100 years before Flavio Gioia. He also thinks that Cardinal Vitry, who lived about A. D. 1200, has mentioned this instrument, under its then imperfect construction, in his History of the Crusaders, and their voyages to the Holy Land. M. Azuni finds traces of the same invention in other authors, who refer it to 1244: but, Vincent de Beauvais, and Albert-le-Grand, before 1240 furnish him with additional testimonies, of a still earlier date; so that, on the whole, he gives the honour of this important discovery to France; though he thinks that it was improved and perfected by others. We do not discover much weight in the argument derived from the circumstance of the *fleur de lys*, with which the compass is ornamented, being the arms of France: since the question concerns the invention not the embellishment: and, as Dr. Wallis has observed, the English name, *compass*, by which it is generally known, though the Italian name *bussola*, prevails very much in the east, and among the Arabs and Chinese, is a much stronger argument in favour of England. But, we would combine this inquiry with what we have hinted on the influence of the Crusades in forming the English navy. It is certain that English vessels in sailing to, or from, the Holy Land, would much more need the assistance of the

compass than French or Italian vessels did, since the route was not only more extensive, but less direct, and exposed to greater dangers. As it is the character of the English nation, to adopt the ideas of others, and to add considerable improvements of its own, we could wish that what histories are extant of the share taken by Englishmen in the Crusades, prior to the adventures of our King Richard in them, were consulted, in order to determine the state of nautical science at the time; including also the means by which ships were enabled to perform that voyage. We should not be surprised, if it proved that the compass was then in use among us, but with the customary negligence of our countrymen, nobody thought of recording any thing about it.

On the whole, it appears, that we may conclude, that the compass was known before the time of Flavio Gioia: probably he improved it; and possibly, he might adopt it to the Cardinal points, and their divisions; he might also contrive the method of balancing it, &c. and hence he has been honoured with the title of inventor.

We do not wish to detract from the merit of any man, who renders an invention useful, which he found useless, or facilitates its services, and by rendering them infinitely more extensive, benefits mankind beyond all calculation. And certainly, we shall not inviolately attempt to lessen the fame of that ingenious contriver, to whom we are beholden for the ease and certainty which navigation derives from the mariner's compass: nevertheless, it would be a pleasure to us to fix the discovery of this instrument in the English nation.

To the Editor of the LITERARY PANORAMA.

VARIATIONS OF INSTINCT.

SIR;—I observed in your account of the discoveries of Professor Camper [Panorama, Vol. I. p. 1031.] that domesticity had the effect on birds of changing the most solid parts from their natural and active state to a weaker conformation, adapted to their artificial situation: that even some peculiarities of their bones were obliterated; and, no doubt, they experience additions, as well as privations. I beg leave to pursue the hint you have given us somewhat further; and to inquire what effect the state of domesticity has had on the manners of creatures: how far experience may have taught them some things, which they now know, but of which they could have had no previous, no natural conception.

I do not pretend to conjecture, Sir, what are your opinions on the doctrine of *innate ideas*; or on what is usually termed *instinct*, but I mean to state a few facts, (independent of those questions), not, in my opinion, void of curiosity, or of interest.

The cock was the example selected by M.

Camper, in proof of anatomical variations from his natural state; I shall, therefore, mention in the first place the alterations which this bird's manners have undergone, by our adoption of him as an inmate.

The cock in our farm yards has lost some of his virtues; and even a part of his courage. We provide, and keep for him a seraglio of females, to which he hardly grants a haughty and transient attention; the mother, who obedient to the voice of nature, retires into obscurity, to hatch her brood, is, by him, forgotten; the young are strangers to him; and she alone protects them. Selfish and jealous, he fights only against his rivals, for the possession of his females, or, from some silly personal point of honour. The cock did not come thus corrupted from the hands of nature; nor are the males thus degraded in the other gallinaceous tribes. The partridge, the grouse, feed and assist their mate while she is hatching. They defend their offspring. The generous cock-grouse even exposes himself to dogs and hunters, and plays in sight of them, at the imminent peril of his life, to draw them off from the spot which hides his family.

The entertaining Le Vaillant, gives us, in his travels in Africa, a pleasing account of a cock, whose manners he had reformed, without intending it, by giving him only a single hen: he then became an attentive husband, sharing with his mate the parental cares, and an affectionate father, repelling with his native courage, and redoubled vigour, every attempt against them.—Others of our domes- tics are equally changed,

The ram, in his natural state is far enough removed from that easily-daunted character, which we call *sheepish*: he boldly faces danger, and offers his horns to assailants however formidable. Several rams, also, will with mutual compact defend a flock. They will place themselves on whatever advantageous points the scene of action affords; and maintain them so vigorously, that the dogs which attack them, lie down, and refuse to renew the combat. Human superiority, then has degraded the vigorous (and moral) character of the ram, as well as the moral character and attachment, of the cock.—But human power and skill has other modes of action: and their effects are felt even by animals, the species of which still maintains its independency.

It is certain that the beavers have not always, and every where, raised dams, built bridges, and erected wooden houses. Those of ancient Gaul had not such industry; those of Russia and Lapland are still strangers to it; they simply dig two furrows, one above and one below the level of the water where they intend to reside; between which they establish communications. The American beavers must have had centuries of profound peace, to have attained their degree of civilisation. During that period they have been,

doubtless, improved by intercourse between numerous families; their language must have acquired a richness of expression, their arts and sciences must have been perfected, regularity and a form of government must have been established, before they could think of rearing constructions so honourable to their American establishments. Whereas in countries fully peopled by man, the cruel war which he wages against them, murdering their most valiant chiefs, and destroying their buildings, disgusts them from erecting new ones which they should soon lose also; it disperses them, insulates them, and tends to bring them back to a state of barbarism. The peaceful beaver, thus persecuted, flies into the remotest wilds, or becomes hermit; and, it is well known, that the number of these last has considerably increased in countries frequented by hunters. Perhaps, too, such effects are not confined to the beaver.

In those wild and fruitful countries watered by the river Amazon, Don Felix d'Azara found spiders whose manners have been softened by peace and plenty, and who live in societies composed of five or six thousand individuals. They are from fifteen to eighteen lines in length, and their body is about an inch in circumference. They take possession of a tree, and, by joint labour, spread over it an immense net, strongly fixed to the ground, or to a neighbouring tree, by ropes also of their making. They then scatter themselves at equal distances on this fortification, especially on the windward side. When the unwary prey falls into the ambuscade, the spiders next to the spot, run in smaller or greater numbers, according to its size; they share it peaceably, without fighting, or even without quarreling; the others remain steadily at their posts, and such is the frightful multitude of insects in those wild countries, that no spider waits long for a captive. As they never feel the pressing pains of hunger, they have no inducement to attack each other; but they live in brotherly union, assisting one another for the general good, and defending their common habitation, even against man, who does not attack it with impunity.

Very far from this social state are the spiders of Europe and Asia. Hunger renders them fierce and ferocious; they prey on each other, without distinction of sex, and a whole brood of young ones is frequently devoured by its unnatural parent.

Yet, even among them, there are exceptions as to individuals. An unfortunate state prisoner\* in the Bastille, in France, had found a spider in his lonely cell, "misfortune doth acquaint us with strange bedfellows," and the joint tenants of the dreary mansion soon became intimate. The prisoner never

failed feeding his friend regularly, and, at last, they so well understood each other, that the spider would come familiarly at the man's call, and beguile, as much as in him lay, the heavy hours of his captivity. Must I add, that the Governor of that gloomy fortress, surprised to see his prisoner escape the torpid despondency of soul, and the restless heart-pounding anxiety it was his study to excite, questioned him as to the means he employed to remove from his mind the deadly weight of unemployed time. The prisoner inadvertently revealed his friendly intercourse with the spider;—the Governor affecting doubt, the spider was called to convince him, and—immediately was crushed to death by the pitiless barbarian!

Gretry mentioned another spider, which, as soon as he struck the keys of his piano, would let itself down from the ceiling by a slender thread, and, resting on the instrument, enjoy attentively the harmony it produced; some tunes seemed to affect it in a livelier manner than others.\*

If we advert to creatures who occupy, as it were, the medium between the extremes of being domesticated by man, and of being sought for by him as his prey, we find that the characters of these also have been more or less varied, in proportion to their intercourse among mankind, and even in proportion to the observations they have made on the conduct of different classes of men.

The crow (I speak of the large kind, too well known to be described) acquires more experience than most birds; he lives long, and travels much; which, as every one knows, is a great source of improvement. He does not suffer a man *armed with a gun* to approach him within its reach; but a *stick* does not excite any alarm in him, and he gaily follows the ploughman very closely to pick up the worms and grubs, which the coulter brings to light: this is well known to country labourers. Some have attributed this discriminating conduct of the crow to the glare of the gun, or to the smell of the gunpowder; be it so: but nature produces neither guns nor gunpowder; in many parts of the globe which crows frequent, their use is utterly unknown. It cannot be, then, by an *instinct*, innate in the species, that they thus fly from gunpowder and fire-arms. What then must we infer from their conduct? That the crow is a very sensible creature, that he knows by experience, by observation, by information, that these machines produce fire and noise, that they wound and destroy. He knows, besides, that the power of man to kill lies in his fowling piece, which has only a certain

\* We believe this is the famous Fouquet.

\* Compare Panorama, Vol. I. pp. 407, 408.

range; and this he wisely calculates rather greater than it really is.

Give me leave to add a few words on the subject of this bird. The crow is of a very communicative disposition; wherever they make any stay, a couple hardly ever meets another without entering into some conversation. From my long intercourse with them I have distinguished five and twenty different modulations in their croaking; although when not listened to frequently and with attention, it appears uniform.\* I shall endeavour to express these variations.

*Cra, crô, cro, croa, croou.*

*Grass, gress, gross, grouss, grououss.*

*Crue, crâa, croa, crona, grouass.*

*Crao, crôo, cro, croi, grouess.*

*Craou, crôou, croo, croou, grouous.*

These are five and twenty words whose analogy is perfectly grammatical, and if we admit that they can be combined in the same manner as we combine figures in arithmetic, we shall not suppose that crows can ever be at a loss to express their meaning. I am, however, far from thinking that they form so many combinations; or, indeed, that their vocabulary contains any combinations whatsoever. Their five and twenty words are fully sufficient to express the ideas of *here, there, right, left, forward, halt, food, beware, armed man, cold, heat, depart, I love thee, so do I, a nest*, and about ten more such advices which they mutually want to communicate to each other.

Previous to their migration, crows, like the (wild) geese, ducks, and swallows, hold a general and noisy assembly; at their return, also, they meet in a congress, which precedes their dispersion. On their long journeys they fly in squadrons, and sing incessantly to regulate the flight, that the weaker may keep pace with the stronger, and thus prevent the breaking of the troop; in like manner as our soldiers use fifes and drums, and put the same foot foremost. In their flight, the crows, like the geese and ducks, have a chief, who places himself at their head. It is likely enough that this commander, to whose di-

\* Many learned naturalists will smile, no doubt, at what they will consider as a conceit, yet the idea that animals possess a language (as they most certainly do) is by no means a new one. It was maintained by the ancients, much better observers of living nature than we are, and among others by Porphyry, Tales, Tiresias, &c. Melampus and Apollonius of Tyanea are even said to have understood it. Some Jews, and even Mahommedans, attribute the same knowledge to Solomon; and I could easily swell this note into a dissertation, by inserting authorities on this subject.

rections the others entrust themselves, is not the least experienced among them. *Duces ex virtute sumunt.*

From these social dispositions, and from the knowledge acquired by crows in their travels, is it not very natural to infer that those among them who have been exposed to gun-shot, even beyond the reach of it, or who have seen its destructive effects on other birds, for instance, on innocent partridges, should fear it excessively; should have studiously applied themselves to distinguish guns and gunpowder, and should warn their companions of the danger attending them? All this it is true requires combinations of ideas, to which *instinct* has no reference. Yet the same may be said of the geese and ducks, who evince equal sagacity in avoiding our fire-arms.

In the day time, when crows disperse themselves in the fields in quest of food, four or six sentries are stationed, who either take their posts on some elevated spot, or gently fly to and fro, keeping a sharp look out, and warning their comrades at the least approach of danger. They are relieved every hour.

In the year 1783 a couple of crows had established their nest in the very center of the town of Newcastle, in the market place, on the weathercock of the Exchange. This nest was strongly fixed to the spindle which rose above the cock, and was spread over this last in a very solid and ingenious manner; it turned with it at the least breath of air, and as these crows had raised considerably that part of the nest which was against the spindle, they and their little family were sheltered from the wind, from whatever point it blew. How many combinations and reflections does the building of such a nest suppose! The first year they very peacefully reared their brood. They returned to the nest in 1784. But their superior cleverness had excited the jealousy of other crows, who insulted the innovators, and after many well fought actions, finally drove them out of their castle. The nest had suffered a good deal in those engagements; and as the conquerors wanted either science or industry to repair it, they abandoned their unjust conquest without deriving any profit from it. They had done evil for evil's sake; like many other usurpers of a very different genus and species. In 1785 the laborious couple repaired their nest, and reared their young family. They continued to occupy it, annually, till the year 1789, when they did not return, probably owing to the death of one of the parties.

Here we see a nest in the construction of which the crows had not the advantage of a model, and which birds of the same species could neither imitate nor repair. It demonstrates that the intelligence of animals may be improved by its exertions, and may

lead us to suppose, that the perfection we remark in the performance of some species, is the result of knowledge acquired by experiment.

It is not certain that the bees and the ants have always been in their same high degree of society as at present, or have at all times raised those scientific constructions, which excite our wonder. Many bees are still to be found who live almost solitary; and many ants who are half wild at least.

If you favour the foregoing remarks with insertion in your valuable work, I propose to add another letter on the subject,

And am, Sir, yours, &c

HERMIT.

TRAVELS FOR EXPLORING THE INTERIOR OF  
AMERICA.

[Vide Panorama, Vol. II. p. 138.]

*Letter from Captain Clark to his brother General Clark, dated St. Louis, September 23, 1806.*

Dear Brother,—We arrived at this place at twelve o'clock to-day from the Pacific Ocean, where we remained during the last winter, near the entrance of the Columbia river. This station we left on the 27th of March last, and should have reached Saint Louis early in August, had we not been detained by the snow, which barred our passage across the Rocky Mountains until the 24th of June. In returning through those mountains we divided ourselves into several parties, digressing from the route by which we went out, in order the more effectually to explore the country, and discover the most practicable route which does exist across the Continent by the way of the Missouri and Columbia rivers. In this we were completely successful, and have therefore no hesitation in declaring, that such as nature has permitted, we have discovered the best route which does exist across the continent of North America in that direction. Such is that by way of the Missouri to the foot of the rapids below the great falls of that river, a distance of 2575 miles; thence by land passing by the Rocky Mountains to a navigable part of the Kooskooske, 340; and with the Kooskooske 73 miles, Lewis's river 154 miles, and the Columbia 413 miles to the Pacific Ocean; making the total distance from the confluence of the Missouri and Mississippi to the discharge of the Columbia into the Pacific Ocean 3,554 miles. The navigation of the Missouri may be deemed good; its difficulties arise from its falling banks, timber embedded in the mud of its channels, its sand-bars, and steady rapidity of its current; all which may be overcome, with a great degree of certainty, by using the necessary precautions. The passage by land of

340 miles, from the falls of the Missouri to the Kooskooske, is the most formidable part of the track proposed across the continent. Of this distance 200 miles is along a good road, 140 miles over tremendous mountains, which for 60 miles are covered with eternal snows. A passage over these mountains is, however practicable from the latter part of June to the last of September; and the cheap rate at which horses are to be obtained from the Indians of the Rocky Mountains, and west of them, reduces the expenses of transportation over this portage to a mere trifle. The navigation of the Kooskooske, Lewis's river, and the Columbia, is safe and good from the 1st of April to the middle of August, by making three portages on the latter river; the first of which, in descending, is 1,200 paces at the falls of Columbia, 261 miles up that river; the second, of two miles, at the Long Narrows, six miles below the falls; and a third, also of two miles, at the Great Rapids, 65 miles still lower down. The tide flows up the Columbia 183 miles, and within seven miles of the Great Rapids. Large sloops may with safety ascend as high as tide water, and vessels of 300 tons burthen reach the entrance of the Multnomah river, a large southern branch of the Columbia, which takes its rise on the confines of New Mexico, with the Callecrado and Apostle's rivers, discharging itself into the Columbia, 125 miles from its entrance into the Pacific Ocean. I consider this track across the continent of immense advantage to the fur trade, as all the furs collected in nine-tenths of the most valuable fur country in America may be conveyed to the mouth of the Columbia, and shipped from thence to the East Indies, by the 1st of August in each year; and will, of course, reach Canton earlier than the furs which are annually exported from Montreal arrive in Great Britain.

In our outward bound voyage we ascended to the foot of the rapids below the great falls of the Missouri, where we arrived on the 14th of June, 1805. Not having met with any of the natives of the Rocky Mountains, we were, of course, ignorant of the passes by land which existed through these mountains to the Columbia river; and had we even known the route, we were destitute of horses, which would have been indispensably necessary to enable us to transport the requisite quantity of ammunition and other stores to ensure the remaining part of our voyage down the Columbia; we therefore determined to navigate the Missouri as far as it was practicable, or unless we met with some of the natives, from whom we could obtain horses, and information of the country. Accordingly, we took a most laborious portage at the fall of the Missouri, of 18 miles, which we effected with our canoes and baggage by the 3d of July. From thence, ascending the Missouri, we penetrated the

Rocky Mountain at the distance of 71 miles above the upper part of the portage, and penetrated as far as the three forks of that river, a distance of 180 miles further. Here the Missouri divides into three nearly equal branches at the same point; the two largest branches are so nearly of the same dignity, that we did not conceive that either of them could, with propriety, retain the name of the Missouri; and therefore called these streams Jefferson's, Madison's, and Gallatin's rivers. The confluence of these rivers is 3,848 miles from the mouth of the Missouri by the meanders of that river. We arrived at the three forks of the Missouri on the 27th of July. Not having yet been so fortunate as to meet with the natives, although I had previously made several exertions for that purpose, we were compelled to continue our route by water.

The most northerly of the three forks, that to which we have given the name of Jefferson's river, was deemed the most proper for our purposes, and we accordingly ascended it 248 miles, to the upper forks, and its extreme navigable point. On the morning of the 17th of August 1805, I arrived at the forks of Jefferson's river, where I met Captain Lewis, who had previously penetrated, with a party of three men, to the waters of the Columbia, discovered a band of the Shoshone nation, and had found means to induce thirty-five of their chiefs and warriors to accompany him to that place. From these people we learned that the river on which they resided was not navigable, and that a passage through the mountains in that direction was impracticable. Being unwilling to confide in this unfavourable account of the natives, it was concerted between Captain Lewis and myself, that one of us should go forward immediately with a small party and explore the river, while the other, in the interim, would lay up the canoes at that place, and engage the natives with their horses to assist in transporting our stores and baggage to their camp. Accordingly I set out the next day, passed the dividing mountains between the waters of the Missouri and Columbia, and descended the river, which I since called the East fork of Lewis's river, about 70 miles. Finding that the Indians' account of the country in the direction of that river was correct, I returned and joined Captain Lewis on August 29, at the Shoshone camp, excessively fatigued, as you may suppose, having passed mountains almost inaccessible, and compelled to subsist on berries during the greater part of my route. We now purchased seventeen horses of the Indians, and hired a guide, who assured us that he could in fifteen days take us to a large river, in an open country west of these mountains, by a route of some distance to the north of the river on which they lived, and that by which, the natives west of the mountains visit the plain of the Mis-

souri for the purpose of hunting the buffalo. Every preparation being made, we set forward with our guide on the 31st of August, through these tremendous mountains, in which we continued till the 22d of September before we reached the lower country beyond them. On our way we met with the Oelachshook, a band of Tuchapaks, from whom we obtained an accession of seven horses, and exchanged eight, or ten others: this proved an infinite service to us, as we were compelled to subsist on horse beef about eight days before we reached the Kooskooche. During our passage over these mountains we suffered every thing which hunger, cold, and fatigue, could impose; nor did our difficulties terminate on our arrival at the Kooskooche; for although the Pollotepallors, a numerous nation inhabiting that country, were extremely hospitable, and for a few trifling articles, furnished us with an abundance of roots and dried salmon, the food to which they were accustomed; we found we could not subsist on these articles, and almost all of us grew sick on eating them; we were obliged, therefore, to have recourse to the flesh of horses and dogs, as food to supply the deficiency of our guns, which produced but little meat, as game was scarce in the vicinity of our camp on the Kooskooche, where we were compelled to remain, in order to construct our pérogues to descend the river. At this season the salmon are meagre, and form but indifferent food. While we remained here, I was myself sick for several days, and my friend Captain Lewis suffered a severe indisposition.

Having completed four pérogues and a small canoe, we gave our horses in charge to the Pollotepallors until we returned, and on the 7th of October re-embarked for the Pacific Ocean. We descended by the route I have already mentioned. The water of the river being low at this season, we experienced much difficulty in descending; we found it obstructed by a great number of difficult and dangerous rapids, in passing of which, our pérogues several times filled, and the men escaped narrowly with their lives. However, this difficulty does not exist in high water, which happens within the period which I have previously mentioned. We found the natives extremely numerous, and generally friendly, though we have on several occasions owed our lives, and the fate of the expedition to our number, which consisted of thirty-one men.

On the 17th of November we reached the ocean, where various considerations induced us to spend the winter; we therefore searched for an eligible situation for that purpose, and selected a spot on the south side of a little river called by the natives Netat, which discharges itself at a small bar on the south side of the Columbia, and fourteen miles within point Adams. Here we constructed some log-houses,

and defended them with a common stockade-work ; this place we called Fort Clastop, after a nation of that name who were our nearest neighbours. In this country we found an abundance of elk, on which we subsisted principally during the last winter. We left Fort Clastop on the 27th of March. On our homeward bound voyage, being much better acquainted with the country, we were enabled to take such precautions as in a great measure secured us from the want of provision at any time, and greatly lessened our fatigues, when compared with those to which we were compelled to submit in our outward-bound journey. We have not lost a man since we left the Mandians ; a circumstance which I assure you is a pleasing consideration to me. As I shall shortly be with you, and the post is now waiting, I deem it unnecessary here to attempt minutely to detail the occurrences of the last eighteen months. I am, &c.

Your affectionate brother,  
WILLIAM CLARK.

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LETTERS ON THE UKRAINE, BY A RUSSIAN  
GENTLEMAN.

[Vide Panorama, Vol. II. p. 129.]

LETTER II.

*The Zaporavian Cozaks.*

The word *Cozak* is generally applied to all those nations or tribes, which occupy the southern confines of the Russian empire, and which in former times were often subjected to the Tartars, from whose language the appellation appears to have been derived. It means a warrior lightly armed, and annoying the enemy more by sudden and short onsets, than by regular and persevering attacks. The Cozaks are unquestionably a branch of the Russians, and are divided into two grand bodies : the *Don Cozaks*, the *Malo-Russian Cozaks*, from which all others have afterwards taken their origin. The latter body is very ancient ; and the *Zaporavian Cozaks* form a part of it, I shall make it the subject of a few observations.

After repeated incursions of the Tartars, devastating the Grand Dukedom of Kiow, but particularly after the conquest of Red Russia by the Boles, several of the Russians, in order to escape the power of the conquerors, emigrated to the countries down the Dnieper ; and for self-defence, formed themselves into a military independant state. This was by no means congenial to their original character. As the yoke of subjection became heavier, the number of emigrants increased so fast, that they soon spread themselves to the rivers Bog, and Dniester. The country thus occupied by them, began to be called *Malo-Russia*, *i. e.* little Russia, in order to distinguish it from Great

Russia. The Poles taught by experience and instructed by policy, relaxed their severity ; granted them several privileges and immunities, and thus secured in them an effectual barrier against the incursions of the Turks and Tartars.

At first, there was no distinction whatever between the *Malo-Russians*. They were all called *Zaporogtzi*, or *Zaporavian Cozaks*, because they lived beyond the Cataracts of the Dnieper ; the word *Zaporogtzi* signifying *people living beyond the cataracts*. It was not till the time of Sigismund I. King of Poland, that some distinction began to be made, in consequence of his having removed one part of the people higher up the Dnieper, solely that they might be better able to keep in check the Turks and Tartars.

The number thus removed having settled beyond the cataracts west of the Dnieper, assumed, by degrees, the exclusive appellation of *Zaporogtzi* ; while those who lived on the east side of the river were more generally called *Malo-Russians*. As their population increased, they extended their settlements towards the government of Bielgorod ; and the country thus added to what they already occupied was called *Ukraine*, which means *frontier*, and is actually the extremity of little Russia, forming at present the government of *Charkow*, and a great part of that of *Ekaterinoslaw*. Thus the *Malo-Russians*, *Ukrainians*, and *Zaporogtzi* are one and the same people ; except that the latter, from concurring circumstances, deviated from the rest in their mode of living so much, that they appeared to form a distinct nation ; and may claim a particular description.

As the *Zaporogtzi* were particularly destined to oppose the Turks and Tartars from the situation in which Sigismund placed them, and which was calculated to keep them in constant activity, their chief and fortified town, called *Sielch*, became peculiarly attractive to those who desired distinction by feats of bravery. Men who courted danger flocked thither from all parts of Little Russia ; but the same motive which drew them to that scene of military adventures, rendered it a too hazardous residence for women, whose removal was therefore justly deemed indispensable. This measure, originally that of necessity, produced by degrees the habit of entirely excluding women, and this habit passed into a sort of a law, by which, at length, no woman whatever was permitted to live among these war hunters. Now commenced the deviation, or rather degeneracy, of their manners ; the total absence of the sex so necessary to temper the mind of man composed of rougher materials, produced all those extremes opposed to civilization, which characterised the *Zaporavian Cozaks*. Their vices were disgusting, and their virtues sa-

vage and ferocious. Drunkenness became their test of valour, and their cardinal virtue; while robbery and plunder, indiscriminately exercised against friends and enemies, constituted their chief occupation. As they received every one into their society, without enquiring whence he came or who he was, they afforded a secure asylum to vagabonds, outlaws, and public offenders of all sorts, who, as they increased, became insufferably obnoxious. By these means, and by various arts which they successfully practised in persuading numbers of venturesome young men to join them, their numbers were kept up, which otherwise, from the exclusion of women, must have been reduced to nothing.

A great number of them having joined Mazega, and fled with him to the Turks, after the defeat of the Swedes at Poltava, were taken under the protection of the Chan of the Crimea, who was extremely rejoiced at their secession from Russia. Peter the Great enacted severe laws against these traitors, and it was not till the year 1733 that the Empress Catherine, at their repeated supplications, and appeals from the oppression of the Chan, pardoned them, and received them again into the Russian dominions.

This she was induced to do, as much in consequence of their repentance, and protestation of future fidelity, as in consideration of their not being implicated in the crime of their predecessors, and their having refused to join the Poles, in the war then on the point of breaking out with the Russians, whom the Cozaks still considered as their countrymen. After they were restored, and incorporated with their brethren who still remained faithful to their country, they again became notorious for their debauchery and depredations. The services they have rendered to Russia in subsequent wars, though of vast magnitude, could not compensate for the multiplied mischiefs they have occasioned. Their conduct, in several instances, has been so outrageous, as to render their abolition a measure of necessity, or, at least, of sound policy. Prince Potemkin, who was made their *Hetman*, for some time protected them, perhaps to answer his own purposes, but, before his death, the Empress Catherine II. in 1775, by a public manifesto, stating the powerful reasons which, in spite of the great services of the *Zaporozzi*, called upon her to abolish them, and to rescue them from the unnatural state of their society, declared their political non-existence, and forced them to participate in the attentions of domestic life. She obliged them to acknowledge the institutions of God and man, and those various duties, the performance of which promotes the individual as well as the general good.

You may wish me, perhaps, to draw a picture of these men, while they lived detached from the other sex, in direct hostility

against nature; I shall, therefore, endeavour to anticipate your wish, and satisfy a little your curiosity.

They professed the Greek religion, and every member of their society, however free in other respects, even so far as to leave it whenever he pleased, was bound to the same. Their clergy had no fixed revenue; nevertheless they enjoyed considerable incomes; for, independent of their being regularly paid for every mass they performed, the Cozaks, not having any ties of relationship, frequently bequeathed to them all their property; which, in consequence of their continued system of plunder, was often very considerable.

They were governed by a chief called *Koshevoy*, whom they yearly elected among themselves, and who ruled over them, more by the dictates of friendship than power, except when on actual service, or marching against an enemy. Their habitation, *Sietch*, was divided into 38 *kurens*, each *kuren* consisting of one large house, and several small houses, close to each other; and as no one could be a Cozak without entering into some of the *kurens*, so every one was obliged to conform to the rules of that particular *kuren* to which he belonged. Each *kuren* had its separate name, taken either from its original founder, or from some remarkable place, or circumstance; and this name it invariably retained. Each *kuren* had its respective *Ataman*, or chieftain; and all were under the command of *Ataman Koshevoy*, i. e. chief commander of the camp; the word *kosh*, from which that of *Koshevoy* is derived, meaning a *camp* in the Tartarian language. *Kurennoy Ataman*, i. e. Ataman of a *Kuren* (the word *kuren*, as derived from the verb to *smoke*, means, probably, a place where the Cozaks smoked their pipes, which idea seems indirectly to imply the place of their residence) was elected by the members of his own *kuren*, while the election of a *Koshevoy* could not take place without the concurrence of all the different *kurens* composing the state. Every *Kurennoy Ataman* lived in his respective *kuren*, without any distinction from the rest of its members; and not only he, but the *Koshevoy*, when once deposed, returned to the level of common Cozaks, without claiming any other respect but what the remembrance of their having been once elected might excite spontaneously among the people.

They met once a year, on the 1st of January, for the purpose of electing a new *Koshevoy*, and new *Starshins* (elders), and of partitioning lakes and rivers; so that each *kuren* might know where it had the exclusive right of fishing. By these means they divided between themselves all the lands, from the mouth of the Samara to that of the Dnieper and the Bog; and prevented all disputes and quarrels, which might have arisen from one

not knowing his portion, and encroaching on that of another. As some spots were more advantageous than others, in order that they might not excite envy and jealousy, they cast lots to determine their possessions for the year. After this they deposed their *Koshevoy* and other *Starshins*, or re-elected them, according as they were satisfied or dissatisfied with their conduct. This meeting was called *Rada*, "the council," or a deliberative body.—When a new *Koshevoy* was to be elected, they forced the candidate into the assembly, and, after the public will was announced, obliged him, in spite of his remonstrances, to accept the insignia of his office; after which the eldest of them threw a handful of earth on his face, without regarding in the least the dirty effects it might produce, upon that face washed and cleaned perhaps *annually* for the occasion. This ceremony I can trace to nothing like reason.

When all could not agree in favour of one candidate, as they drank pretty freely at such times, blows frequently decided the question, and the strongest side carried the point. They had other meetings of lesser importance, which referred to the election of petty officers; and were generally dispensed with when no change of officers was in contemplation. The parties, if desired, must resign their offices immediately; as the least remonstrance, on their part, might prove fatal.

They had no laws but those dictated by custom and their own judgment. Petty offences were determined by a judge, but those of greater importance could not be decided without the authority or the advice of the *Koshevoy* and the elders. To kill a fellow Cozak was deemed the greatest of crimes.—The criminal was commonly punished by being buried alive with the deceased, the murderer being thrown to the bottom of the grave, the coffin which contained the body of the deceased was laid upon him, and the grave was filled up with earth. Next to murder was thieving any thing from a comrade. I say a comrade, because to rob a stranger, and particularly an enemy, was held, as among the primitive Romans, honourable and meritorious; while to do the same to one of their own society was an offence for which only public disgrace and exposure to the vengeance of the mob could atone. In this case, if the thief were ever so trifling, the offender was tied to a post in a public square, at least for three days, provided that within that time the stolen goods were restored to the owner, or that the prisoner got some one to bail him; but, in default of either, he was exposed to the insults and pelting of the populace so long, that the punishment not infrequently terminated in his death. For a second offence he was hanged without mercy.

The property of those who suffered death

by condemnation was forfeited, and added to the military fund; which was committed to the management of the *Koshevoy* and *Starshins*. The debtor was tied in the same manner to a capon, in a public square, till such time as his debts were discharged. Any misunderstanding between one *kuren* and another ceased at the approach of an enemy; and, at most, lasted no longer than the term of the first council or meeting, when it was commonly decided by majority of hands.—The right of the strongest was the foundation on which stood their society; as is the case with every society in a rude state. Their effects, whether consisting in money or apparel, were in the hands of their respective *Atamans*, whose duty it was to provide every necessary for the *kurens* of which they were the chiefs, and to settle all petty quarrels among the men composing them; in which they resembled the old patriarchal governments, where a father was the chief ruler of his family.

The *Zaporavians* drew their revenue from the ferries on the Dnieper, and duties imposed on goods imported into Sietch, from the adjacent countries. Those that followed some trade or business, on certain days, made presents to the *Koshevoy* and other *Starshins*, and, in return, were liberally treated with liquor. As this treatment was an object of considerable interest to them, they, in order to make the best of it, assigned a particular day for each present appropriated to the different individuals, which ceremony, called *raletz*, is common in all Little Russia. Their food and cookery were very simple. In the lower part of their dress they much resembled the Turks, except that, instead of sandals, they wore short red, or yellow Morocco boots, like their neighbours the Tartars. Their head, completely shaved, except a small lock of hair on the crown, long enough to reach the nose, had for its cover flat short hats, trimmed round with fur.

Their weapons of war consisted in a crooked sabre, like the Turkish, a lance, a gun, and sometimes a brace of pistols. When an enemy, particularly the Tartars, approached, the alarm was given by the report of cannon, a signal for all the Cozaks to assemble at Sietch; but such was the terror their bravery and heedless valour inspired, that the invaders seldom dared to face them, and the object of their expedition scarcely ever extended beyond driving away some flocks and herds belonging to the Cozaks, or making a few prisoners.

When the Cozaks returned home with booty, a certain portion of which was allotted to the *Koshevoy* and *Starshins*, they celebrated their success by public rejoicings, carried to the utmost pitch of extravagance. In hope of similar luck, they generally spent every *polushka* (farthing) they had. On such

occasions their pride led them to visit their relations, if they had any, in Little Russia, and sport with their money in publick fairs, till, having squandered all, they were obliged to return the way they came. I have seen one of these votaries of Mars and Bacchus, dressed in his finest suit, walk with great composure, and squat himself down—where do you think? in a tub of tar, up to his chin: there he sat like a Grand Seignior, attended by a band of musicians, who regaled his ear with favourite airs, while the mob, invited by the attractions of the scene, and more by a flask of gin, with a cup of pretty decent size, which he held in his extended hands, thronged round the wonderful tub, with this more wonderful man in it, huzzaing and shouting, delighted beyond expression with the merry frolic! The example of this singular mode of merry-making is so catching, that a common labourer of Little Russia will often spend in one day the yearly fruits of his labour, in imitating a Cozak: to resemble whom, in feats of absurdity, is his highest ambition; and to mimick whose manners is his dearest delight.

COLLECTANEA OF BRITISH ANTIQUITIES.  
No. III.

[Vide Panorama, Vol. I. p. 1290.]

We are accustomed so invariably to require life for life, that the very idea of compensation for murder has something in it repugnant to our feelings; and if individuals might so far accept of a pecuniary recompence as to rest satisfied with it, yet the paramount authority of the society at large would consider itself as wounded, if not dishonoured, till the crime had been atoned for by the death of the offender. Our ideas lead us to suppose that the severity of this law is necessary, in order to controul the violent passions of men, and to prevent their bursting out into fatal excesses.

But it was not so always; and it is not so every where. At this day, in the East, compensation for blood is a customary thing; and it is paid to the nearest of kin, as the wife, &c. That compensation for blood is extremely ancient, we infer from its being expressly forbidden by Moses, Numb. xxxv. 31. but that legislator would not have thought of forbidding an unknown custom. Inasmuch also, as Moses deviated, by his prohibition, from the institutions of other nations, as appears by his carefully repeated injunctions, we may infer the prevalence of this principle among those who were settled around the country allotted to his people.

There is among the FRAGMENTS annexed to CALMET'S Dictionary of the Bible one or two on this subject, in which the writer considers the institution of the cities of refuge by Moses as happily calculated to suppress family feuds and private revenge: but it is

plain that he had never heard of the regulations concerning murder which were established among the ancient inhabitants of Britain. It strikes us, at this moment, that this partition of a pecuniary mulct among the relatives may be considered as a kind of perpetual holding to bail against the commission of this crime. So that, beside the personal reluctance to deprive another of life which pervades every man's bosom, there was implicated also the welfare, the honour of the family, and the payment which each relative was called on to contribute, by way of retribution. When we duly estimate the value of a pound in those days, we shall see that the brother of a culprit had no small interest in restraining him from the deed of murder; and so of the other relatives, as well on the mother's side as on the father's. We are also to include the usual intercourse of a family among its members; that they lived with, or near to each other; so that the *chances* were greatly in favour that a quarrel leading to bloodshed could hardly happen between any two, without the presence of some other party interested to preserve the peace, or, at least, to prevent the extreme of violence and anger. The extension of this penalty to the sixth degree of kindred naturally involved many persons in the disgrace and loss, if the crime were perpetrated; in the felicity and advantage, if it were prevented. That the parties nearest of kin should receive the greater compensation for the loss of their relative, or, *vice versa*, should pay it, is an obvious principle.

The reader will not fail to notice the abettors of murder. In our own laws, every one who abets murder is a *principal*: but it should seem that there was great wisdom as well as humanity in punishing the *incipient* accessory actions to this crime with so heavy a mulct as *nine score pence*; and to this is added, the oath of an hundred persons to render it credible that the party guilty of these *early* indications of malice was, nevertheless, not likely to have been instrumental to the fatal design of the criminal. That man must surely been of known good character for whom a hundred men would vouch upon oath that they did not believe him to be actuated by enmity against the sufferer.

Moreover, we may consider the fine paid for *insult* as corroborating the same precautionary principle: for, as guilt is seldom extreme in the first instance, the payment for an insult which involved the family might, happily, prevent murder, which would have involved them still more. The punishment of lesser transgressions may be taken, almost universally, as a security against the commission of crimes of deeper dye. This payment extended only to three degrees of kindred, whereas that for murder extended to six,

He who makes satisfaction for murder, if his kindred be in the same country with himself, he must pay the whole compensation before the end of a fortnight; if his kindred should be scattered in several other countries, the term of a fortnight shall be had for every country.

In this manner shall a divided compensation for murder be paid; a pound is the share of a brother; six score pence is the share of a cousin; three score pence is the share of a second cousin; thirty pence is the share of nephews' sons of second cousins; fifteen pence is the share of those of the fifth degree of affinity; seven pence-halfpenny is the share of those of the sixth degree: there is neither an appropriate share, nor an appropriate name for relationship beyond that.

A father's share of the murder compensation of his son is a penny. The same law has respect to the claiming of kindred as to the denial of it. For guarding against losing kindred a stock penny shall be paid. No other one of a family shall join to pay a fine for insult with a person whilst he has any goods in his possession; yet on account of the insufficiency of his goods, it is right to divide the amount of insult fine to be levied upon the three degrees of kin nearest to him.

Concerning the nine abettments of murder, the nine abettments to theft, and the nine abettments to arson. The first are, the nine abettments to murder: one of them is, a redening of the tongue, or the shewing the party who is to be killed; the second is, a consenting; the third is, the giving advice; the fourth is, the being on the look-out; the fifth is, a bearing company; the sixth is, the repairing to the place where the person is who shall be killed; the seventh is, the drawing him into the way; the eighth is, being aiding violence, or holding the person while he is slain; the ninth is, seeing him killed, and suffering it to be done.

For each of the three first shall be paid nine score pence, and the oath of a hundred men to disown blood; for each of the other (three) shall be paid twice nine score, and the oath of a hundred men to disown; for every one of the three last shall be paid thrice nine score, and the oath of an hundred men to deny blood.

Whoever shall acknowledge a murder, let him pay the whole of the satisfaction for blood. The third of the satisfaction shall come upon the murderer; and the two parts shall be divided into three-thirds; two shares shall be paid by the family of the father, and the third by the family of the mother.

The severe instance of satisfaction for murder is, when a man kills another, and the kindred pays the compensation, except the share of the murderer, and he is killed by another family, owing him nothing; his share

his kindred ought to pay: and that law is called the severe instance of satisfaction for murder, on account of the hardships of losing the person, and of paying a part of the compensation also.

#### HINTS ON THE PRESENT STATE OF MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE IN FRANCE.

[Abstracted from the *Bibliothèque Commerciale*.]

France is exerting every effort to re-establish her manufactures: in this bloodless ambition she is perfectly at liberty to follow the dictates of her own sagacity. In the mean time, it is not uninteresting to observe the actual condition of her establishments. Their state may serve as a useful lesson to Britain, as a source of gratitude to Providence for our escape from similar evils, and perhaps, also, as affording hints not unworthy of British attention. We are not furnished with documents for a general, or complete view of the French manufactures, but must make the best we can of what communications reach us from time to time, and with great irregularity. We shall select our instances in this article from a report "On the Commerce and Industry of the Department of the Loire and Cher," now before us.

#### Manufactury of Cotton white Goods of M.M. Pujol and St. Nyé

Has been established many years; prospered with the revolution; then sunk; is now reviving. Its dainties, &c. rival the English. The proprietors have a pension from Government. The proprietor formerly employed 1500 persons at St. Nyé, Orleans, Blois, &c. —exported to Russia, Germany, the Low Countries, Brabant, and throughout France. Now employs 400. No commerce beyond the frontiers of France.

#### Arrondissement of Vendôme.

*Cotton Goods.*—This kind of manufacture increases daily. The most considerable establishments are those of M. Josse, at Meslay, near Vendôme, and that of Blanchard, at Vendôme. The first is the oldest, and has 15 looms at work; employs 25 sorters and 227 spinners. The second is of much later date; the proprietor, who before the revolution was only a workman, owes his success to his activity and intelligence, has 46 looms, employs 25 sorters, and 233 spinners. Three other manufactorys have together 6 looms, and employ 30 to 40 spinners. So that the whole of this branch at Vendôme employs nearly 700 persons. Similar establishments have been long extant at Mondoubleau, Savigny, and elsewhere. It is observed, that as these increase, woollen goods are proportionably diminished. About one-fourth of the produc-

is consumed in the department, the rest is usually sent to the departments of the Cher, of the Nievre, of the Yonne, of the Aube, and in general into the vine countries.

*Gloves.*—The gloving trade of Vendôme, thirty years ago, was the most important branch of traffic in the country. There were then 20 master manufacturers. It gradually lost its activity, till, in 1793, it was almost wholly abandoned. Within the last three years it is reviving. Fifty workmen are employed in the shops: the previous preparations employ about 500 persons of the town and its neighbourhood. Furnishes annually 7000 dozens of chamois leather gloves, and an equal number of those called Siamese.

*Manufactury of Serges at Montoire, at Troo, and Mondoubleau.*

Before the revolution more than 40 manufacturers of serges gave employment to 1000 or 1200 workmen; and each made 12 to 15,000 ells. At present, nine manufacturers employ only 60 to 80 workmen. Bankruptcies, and the hardness of the times, were the first cause of this calamity; which the preference given to cotton goods has perpetuated. At Lavardin is a whitstering ground for linens, &c. established since the revolution; employs 12 persons; uses the old process. A knitting manufactory employs almost all the rest of the people, men, women, and children; furnishes only coarse stockings and woollen gloves, for the use of the country people. The trade in these goods, which were exported to Nantes, was formerly double what it now is; at present it does not exceed 100 or 120,000 franks (£5,000), and the whole is consumed in the neighbouring districts.

*Glass-house at Montmairail*

Is famous for fine chrystral glasses, for chemical purposes, &c.; sends to Paris, Tours, Saumur, Rouen, and some to America. Employs 160 workmen, 46 children, and 104 horses.

*Tanneries.*—There are tanneries at Mondoubleau, at Cormenon, and at Vendôme.—These last, in number seven, not including a preparer of chamois leather, and a dresser of white leather, are the most considerable.—The tanners procure all their skins from Vendôme, Tours, and Paris. The tannits of Vendôme finish yearly 200 skins for soles, 2400 belts, 4000 calf-skins, and 3000 sheep skins. Except about 1000 belts, and 2000 calf-skins, sent to Tours, the rest is consumed in the country. Persons occupied in all, about 100 to 120.

*Saint Aignan.*

*Broad Cloths.*—Since 1789 the establishments here had diminished, as well by the death or retirement of their proprietors, as by the shock of the revolution. They are now reviving. The number of masters has increased, but that of workmen has diminished in

proportion, and the little masters are also themselves become workmen. The total product of all the manufactories annually is 500 to 550 pieces; three quarters of this quantity being white, one quarter in colours. Each piece is 30 ells. Till within these few years these cloths were sold as they came from the fuller: more lately they were sheered and finished. By this mean they could supply cloths ready for the army; as they found that their cloths were employed for that purpose by those to whom they sold them. This, however, has been given up. St. Aignan is the seat of a Consultative Committee, whose office it is to acquaint Government with the wants of the manufactories, and the best means of improving arts, manufactures, and trades. The tanneries of this town have greatly increased since the revolution: their productions may be valued at 8 or 900,000 franks (£40,000), sent to Tours, Orleans, and Paris.

*Arrondissement of Romorantin.*

*Broad Cloths*—are the most considerable manufacture. At Romorantin are 115 masters, who employ 970 workmen in the factories, 130 workmen out of the factories, such as fullers, finishers, &c. and 1500 spinners, women and girls, from 8 to 15 years of age. They reckon about 500 lads, and 300 women, in other parts of the manufacture, making in all 3200 persons; more than half the population of the town. This manufactory yields annually 3650 pieces. Formerly they employed two-thirds wool of Sologne, and one-third wool of Berry: now they use almost all wool of Sologne, because this wool makes least waste. The cloths are sold to Government for the army, and, are sent to various parts of France.

*Drugget* is composed of wool and thread. Only the middling wools of Sologne are used. It is either plain or striped: the first is used for the clothing of countrymen, the second for their wives. It is made at Romorantin, at Vouzon, Soudême, and Pierre Fite. The most considerable factory is at Romorantin, and comprises 15 dealers, who employ 156 workmen, and make annually about 46,000 ells. Almost all the women of this district whose husbands are vine-dressers employ themselves during winter in the spinning of woollen threads. Six tanners at Romorantin make 40,000 lbs. of leather of different kinds. In this town is a Consultative Committee.

It must, however, be acknowledged, says the writer, that a preponderating power retarded, and, according to all appearance, will long continue to retard, the progress of commercial and manufacturing industry in this district. In vain are all other favourable circumstances combined; the first mover is wanted—*there are no great capitals*; and when it has been attempted to supply this deficiency by activity, or a laudable confidence

in personal credit, the best and most judicious efforts have sunk under the opposition experienced from a rich and commercial city in the neighbourhood. Orleans, by furnishing monied men, acting together, vigilant where their interests are concerned, always ready to sacrifice something now, in order to recover it with advantage hereafter, opposes to the lesser speculators of the surrounding towns, at once, the immense weight of ready money which secures to it all sellers, and the ability to allow temporary discounts on the current prices by which it allure all buyers. From this artificial monopoly only grain, wine, and brandy, are exempted. Yet, within ten or twelve years, the powers of the merchants of Orleans are diminished. Before the revolution, 12, or at most, 15 negotiants, conducted the trade of Orleans. These settled among themselves the prices of commodities, which nothing could withstand. At present the number is increased to nearly forty: so that any compact among them is more difficult to form, and less effectual. Other places have experienced the same change; and it is hoped that the labouring districts may in time acquire sufficient capital to enable them to prosper in proportion to their industry.

Our readers will have remarked, that the revolution is considered in France as a kind of fixed epoch, at which the manufactures of that kingdom suffered most exceedingly; that they have since revived, more or less, according to circumstances; but that the benefit of general export to foreign countries is little felt. Nevertheless, considerate minds are intent on promoting foreign trade. Among other works on the subject, one has lately been addressed to Bonaparte by M. Bailly, a broad cloth weaver at Elbeuf, entitled "Observations on the Manufacture of Broad Cloth."—(Paris, 1806, 8vo. Koenig.) We shall extract a few passages from this pamphlet, as not unworthy of notice by our own manufacturers.

Colbert established regulations on this article; but the revolution has swept them all away. "After the interest of the national industry, which cannot be suffered to degenerate, without exposure to great injury, we may place the interest of the army, and of the treasury. What heavy expenses is Government at yearly for the clothing of the troops. Yet it frequently happens that a Colonel who has not taken the precaution to have all the cloth furnished to his regiment sponged, finds, in a month or two, all the coats or cloaks shrunk a quarter, and even more. For the manufacturer, not being watched in his work, nor subjected to inspection afterwards, ruins at once the regiment which he has served, and his neighbouring fellow-manufacturer, who cannot deliver his goods at so low a price, because he furnishes a better commodity, which not having been stretched at the

mill, but thoroughly fulled, maintains its proper size.

" By the same mismanagement the treasury suffers; because treachery introduces a competition in evil among the workmen, and the whole manufacture experiences a fatal deterioration; for who will purchase such commodities? For instance, where the number of threads on the beam was formerly 2400 to 3000, it is now less than seven-eights; for the highest number is 1800 threads; the woof and warp the same. This deficiency in length and breadth is made good by stretching; so that after the cloth has been worn a little while, it shrinks back again to its former and natural dimensions.

" Another great abuse is, that of a manufacturer appropriating at his pleasure the mark and list of another master, who is in greater repute than himself. The purchasers, who place confidence in that mark, are deceived, and the whole trade suffers through this imposition.

" This fraud was become so flagrant, that some put on the end of their cloths "imitation of Louviers," or "imitation of Sedan;" the dealer cut off the word *imitation*, but left the word *Louviers*, or *Sedan*, and sold common cloths of Elbeuf or Verviers for fine cloths of Louviers. In fact, it was also become so barefaced, that some of the makers at Verviers, and in the country of Limbourg, marked their cloths with the *names of the best makers at Louviers and Sedan*.

" In like manner, the dyes were adulterated; so that when an officer supposed he was purchasing a *blue* cloth, he found, after a short time of wearing, that he had received only a villainous lead-colour brown. The fact was, there was too little indigo, too much wood, in the dye. A similar deception was practised at Elbeuf, and elsewhere, in goods dyed in the piece: the wearer of which quickly found a white thread running up the seams of his coat.

" Formerly every dyer of fine goods was obliged to mark his work with a small piece of lead, and those who had deserved it by excellent workmanship, were privileged to have their lead *gilded*. These marks were affixed only to the best goods, they described the price paid for the dyeing; and every man was jealous of his reputation, and warranted his colours from changing.

" Before the revolution, all cloths which arrived in Paris were sent to the Cloth-hall, and examined; the blues and blacks were even scoured, and all that proved to be badly executed were confiscated; so that the buyer might depend on the real length, and the real dye, &c. of the cloth.

\* When we were in France Louviers cloth was £1 11s. 6d. British cloth of the same quality not more than £1 1s. per yard.

" At present, on the contrary, every body tries to make his goods *cheap*, no matter how bad, the price of cloth is raised in a manner truly extraordinary; but the quality is inferior; the dyeing is conducted with parsimony, and even with fraud; so that the rise of price and the abuse of confidence become truly alarming."

The writer then recommends the establishment of inspectors, &c. at the places of manufacture, the renewal of the *plombing* (lead-marking) system, &c.

We learn also, that the cloths of Louviers and Sedan are sent to all parts of the world: those of Carcassone and the Southern provinces, to the Levant; and that there are manufactured yearly in France 3,000,000 of pieces of woollen cloths and stuffs.

On this subject we cannot but recommend the utmost jealousy to our British manufacturers, not of their rivals' abilities or conduct, but of their own; that we do not speak without justifiable grounds, we refer for proof to Panorama, Vol. I. p. 1061.—See also p. 119, article, *Report on the Woollen Manufacture, from a Committee of the House of Commons.*

#### UKAZE OF HIS MAJESTY THE EMPEROR OF RUSSIA, ADDRESSED TO THE PEASANTRY.

The following Proclamation of the Emperor of Russia has never appeared in English, being now, for the first time, translated, for the Panorama. Our intention in presenting it is, not only to shew the zeal which the Emperor has manifested, but to point out the policy of calling the population of his immense Empire to arms, under a character distinct from that of soldiers. As this is analogous to the preparations for training our own countrymen, it shews that an intention prevails among regular Governments of opposing a mass of loyal defenders of their country to a mass of enemies poured in upon them. May a happy result prove the wisdom of the measure!

In a Manifesto dated November 30 (old style), his Imperial Majesty was graciously pleased to declare to all his faithful subjects, that the chief of the French nation, known under the name of Napoleon Buonaparte, having seduced Germany by false treaties of peace, fell on her unexpectedly, and in a short time conquered her; and now the said chief, Buonaparte, took it into his head to carry war to the Russian frontiers, where our armies, under the command of Kamensky, are ready to meet him, with a mighty hand; but, as the frontiers of the Russian Empire are too extensive to be lined with troops, his Imperial Majesty has been pleased, for their defence, in case of necessity, to decree the institution of a temporary militia, composed

of the nobility, tradesmen, peasants, and boors, whose duty it will be to defend with all their strength the Russian Empire against the French, and their chief, Napoleon Buonaparte, who threatens to make an irruption into Russia, with a great military force, and boasts of trampling on the Christian religion, and bringing destruction upon all the faithful. His Imperial Majesty, engaged in a good cause, firmly relying on the Almighty, on the fidelity, bravery, and affections of his people, is persuaded, that every subject will spare neither his property nor life in defending, if necessary, his friends, his relations, and his country. In pursuance of this gracious will and pleasure of his Imperial Majesty, the following regulations are to be immediately enforced.

1. After the first notice, a common council [of a place] shall be held, to declare to all peasants that the present requisition is not a levy of recruits, but merely a temporary demand of warlike men, who, as soon as the necessity ceases, shall be returned to their homes, and into their former state; for the truth of which his Majesty pledges his Imperial word; and for this reason, peasants chosen for this militia are permitted to wear their usual dress, and are not required to shave their hair or beard.

2. After this the common council shall proceed to choose among the peasants men fit for service, that is, healthy, sound, and not crippled, without much difference as to their age or size, provided always, they are chosen from among families consisting of more than one son, as no family should be deprived of the only labourer which it has to depend upon.

3. Peasants chosen for this militia shall remain at home, and suffer no interruption to their business, until they shall be called for by the department to which they belong.—Their superiors are required to instil into their minds, that the present service is temporary, and intended only till the enemy shall be conquered; an event which, with the Divine assistance, may not be far distant, after which they shall return with honour and glory to their paternal homes, and their dear relatives; mean while, the peasants thus chosen are to live peaceably, and pay every obedience and submission to their commanders, shunning all disorderly behaviour and public disturbance, and particularly avoiding disobedience, as the delinquent shall be punished with all the rigour of law.

4. Till the peasants chosen for service shall be called on duty, the common council shall make a collection of money to provide them with clothes, shoes, money, provisions, and arms, as far as the means will admit, to each man a hat, two shirts, leather or worsted breeches, two pair of drawers, winter coat, under coat, belt, gloves, boots, and stockings, besides three roubles in cash, and pro-

visions for three months, consisting of six bushels, or five pounds and twenty-five pounds, of rye, and four pecks and half of buck wheat, or any other grain used in the respective countries; also, six pounds of salt; keeping all these articles, money, and provision, in readiness, till it shall be made known by order where, when, and to whom these things are to be committed for care and protection.

As to arms, the government exhorts all the faithful and well-affected subjects of his Imperial Majesty, having their country's good at heart, not to spare their property in arming the said militia, according to the means God has blessed them with; so that, each peasant having more than one gun, or any other weapon, shall furnish it with another who is enrolled in the militia; and for this spontaneous contribution his name shall be recorded, and his affection duly rewarded. In case the number of peasants in the militia belonging to one particular district should be greater than the quantity of arms to supply them, the deficiency shall be made good by the government; in the mean time, those that are chosen for the service are to prepare their scythes according to the pattern which shall be sent to them, in order that there be no sound and strong weapons wanting to chastise the enemy: all these weapons and implements of war are to be kept in the nearest town of the district, under the care of the magistrate, or other person appointed by the government. Faith in the all-ruling Providence, fidelity to the Emperor, and the love of the country, will triumph over the hostile forces. The government is persuaded, that at the call of his Majesty, to defend the country, and the true religion, each confiding in God, with tranquil mind, and undaunted spirit, will take up his arms, and firmly meet the common enemy; while the chosen servants of the Heavenly King, with fervent prayers at the altar of Him who holds the fates of kingdoms, will invoke his supreme aid in repelling, subduing, and destroying the common scourge of nations, and in the re-establishing of blessed peace and tranquillity in the Russian Empire.

Nothing can shew more decidedly than this Uzake the sense entertained by the Emperor Alexander of the magnitude of the danger which approaches him with hasty strides; nor the determined spirit with which he calls on his subjects to resist it. Neither the attempts of the Persians to disturb his government, nor the vehemence of the Turks, can give him any uneasiness. And if the scourge of Europe should meet with some success, it will avail little against a wise government, and a valiant population.

### PROPOSITA PHILANTHROPICA.

*Homo sum,  
Humani nihil a me alienum puto.*

A PLAN TO PREVENT ALL CHARITABLE DONATIONS, FOR THE BENEFIT OF POOR PERSONS, IN THE SEVERAL PARISHES OF ENGLAND AND WALES, FROM LOSS, EMBEZZLEMENT, NON-APPLICATION, MIS-APPLICATION, FRAUD, AND ABUSE, IN FUTURE; SUBMITTED TO THE CONSIDERATION OF THE PUBLIC, BY WILLIAM BECKWITH, ESQ.

[Vide Panorama, Vol. II. p. 225.]

What I would first recommend, as an essential and fundamental part of my plan is, to have an office established in the metropolis, and proper officers appointed, for the registering all estates and property, of every kind, given for the use of the poor, in the most methodical and best manner that can be done to perpetuate the same.

Whatever difficulties may occur in establishing such an office may easily be surmounted by act of Parliament.

Returns were made of the state and condition of hospitals in the reigns of Queen Elizabeth and Charles the Second, and returns of all charitable donations for the benefit of poor persons, from the several parishes in England and Wales, were likewise made, in pursuance of the act of the 26th of his present Majesty, which several returns I suppose may be easily obtained from the places where deposited. What further information may be wanted should be furnished by the ministers and churchwardens of every parish, and all others entrusted with the care of donations for the use of the poor.

Subscribers to be incorporated by Parliament, under the appellation of Conservators or Guardians of Public Charities, with full power and authority to inspect, by themselves or their agents, all donations to charitable uses: with president, vice-president, treasurer, secretary, inspectors, surveyors, counsel, solicitor, and clerks for registering the donations in form, with such rules and regulations as shall be judged proper.

The best mode of registering such an immense number of donations as there are to charitable uses in England and Wales, will be, to have one or more books for each county, in which all such donations in the several parishes within the said county should be alphabetically registered, with an index at the end referring to each parish; all gifts of the same kind, in each parish, should be arranged together, according to their priority in point of time: for example, gifts for providing bread for the poor, if more than one in the same parish, put together; and gifts, if more

than one, of money to be distributed to the poor, put by themselves; and all gifts for putting out poor children apprentices to traders, placed together; and so of other gifts, in like manner. I mention this, from an apprehension that most of the returns made to the House of Commons are transcripts of the tables put up in their churches, which I have generally observed to want this mark of distinction, from the confused manner in which they narrate the benefactions to the poor.—Every donation registered should specify the deed or will, with the date thereof by which it was made, referring to the place where to be found, as far as can or may be done with certainty; and when the deed or will cannot be found, the defect should be mentioned in the register.

The real estates given to charitable uses in each county to be surveyed and valued on oath, in order to have as accurate an account as possible of them, where situate, to whom let, rent, condition, &c.

As to letting the charity estates in future, the society or their committee should exercise their discretion, as to the letting the same for a term not exceeding twenty-one years.

When such a registry has been made as complete as may be, I would recommend that each parish in England and Wales should have an abstract of all the donations so registered, belonging to them respectively, to be put up in some conspicuous part of the church for the inspection of the parishioners, at all times, with directions at the foot thereof where to apply to the Conservators of Public Charities.

I must not neglect observing, that the persons who have the receipt of monies given to charitable uses, in general, have seldom a reward assigned by the donors, which can be deemed a proper recompence for their trouble of receiving and paying the poor; I therefore propose an allowance of sixpence in the pound. But the party neglecting his duty to be fined.

To oblige all persons to give it annual accounts publicly at Easter; to be passed by the parishioners, unless objected to.

It occurs to me that the society should have full power, as often as they see occasion, to nominate in each county one or more persons, from time to time, to inspect and examine the state, condition, and management of all hospitals or almshouses, and gifts for the use of the poor, in each parish, that they may not be deluded by those entrusted with the care of the same.

The better to come at a full and speedy disclosure and discovery of all real and personal property given for the use of the poor, and which may have been concealed, embezzled, or misappropriated, I would recommend a short process, or *festinum remedium*, by the legis-

lature giving authority to two or more justices of the peace, residing near to the parish, not any way interested in the inquiry to be made, on application of any parishioner or agent of the Conservators of Public Charities, to examine carefully what lands, and the value thereof, or sum or sums of money, may have been given for the use of the poor of the said parish, and any way withheld from them; and to trace the same as far as may be on oath. Also to adjudicate between parties, recover deficiencies, &c. A copy of such adjudication, signed by the minister and churchwardens of the said parish, shall, within fourteen days after the same hath been obtained, be transmitted to the said Conservators, at their office in London, for their inspection and approbation, as to what may be further done thereon in procuring the recompence or satisfaction so adjudged.

I have mentioned a counsel and solicitor as proper officers to the society, and as no prescription ought to prevail against charitable uses, I reckon the society will find much employment for these learned gentlemen, in recovering property which the poor, I may say, have been wickedly deprived of.

Permit me to add, as a corollary to the foregoing plan, that a society, established for the purposes aforesaid seems calculated to be as useful to the commonwealth as any other society hitherto formed for promoting religion, morality, and the fine arts; for, it must be admitted by every intelligent person, who duly considers the importance of the subject, that there is an urgent necessity to correct and put a stop to the manifold frauds, breaches of trust, and negligences, found in the administration of donations to charitable uses; and, as our laws, standing as they do, have not been able to effect this, some other expedient is apparently wanted to accomplish what they are defective in.

By registering all donations for the use of the poor, in the several parishes in England and Wales, they will be open for the inspection of every one desirous of examining them for all purposes wanted; and, as the writings of many gifts to the poor have been lost or destroyed, registering the gifts will give stability to the charity in future, and supply the want of those writings, besides many gifts made to the poor on contingencies, as on certain relatives of the donors dying without issue have been lost for want of care, a register of such contingent gifts in future is the most infallible way to preserve them from being lost; and by establishing a registry and putting gifts to the poor under the protection of a society in manner before-mentioned, I apprehend will not fail to remove all discouragement which at present pervades the minds of the benevolent from bestowing their wealth in donations for the poor, after their death, from the un-

certainty of a faithful application thereof; but when they know their gifts are under the eye of a society of honourable men, constituted for the sole purpose of seeing charitable donations duly administered, this, I doubt not, will restore their confidence, and give fresh animation to their charitable designs.

Here I conclude, leaving this important matter to the consideration of the public; professing myself willing to subscribe liberally towards establishing a fund necessary for the purpose of carrying this plan, if approved, into execution.

AFRICAN INSTITUTION.

At a meeting of noblemen and gentlemen, held at Freemasons' Hall, on Tuesday, April 14, his Royal Highness the Duke of Gloucester in the chair,

It was unanimously resolved,

That this meeting is deeply impressed with a sense of the enormous wrongs which the natives of Africa have suffered in their intercourse with Europe, and from a desire to repair those wrongs, as well as from general feelings of benevolence, is anxious to adopt such measures as are best calculated to promote their civilization and happiness.

That the approaching cessation of the slave trade, hitherto carried on by Great Britain, America, and Denmark, will, in a considerable degree, remove the barrier which has so long obstructed the natural course of social improvement in Africa, and that the way will be thereby opened for introducing the comforts and arts of a more civilized state of society.

That the happiest effects may reasonably be anticipated from diffusing useful knowledge, and exciting industry among the inhabitants of Africa; and from obtaining and circulating throughout this country more ample and authentic information concerning the agricultural and commercial faculties of that vast continent; and that through the judicious prosecution of these benevolent endeavours, we may ultimately look forward to the establishment, in the room of that traffic by which the African continent has been so long degraded, of a legitimate and far more extended commerce, beneficial alike to the natives of Africa and to the manufacturers of Great Britain and Ireland.

That the present period is eminently fitted for prosecuting these benevolent designs, since the suspension during the war of that large share of the slave trade which has commonly been carried on by France, Spain, and Holland, will, when combined with the effect of the abolition laws of Great Britain, America, and Denmark, produce nearly the entire cessation of that traffic along a line of coast extending between two and three thousand miles in length, and thereby afford a peculi-

arly favourable opportunity for giving a new direction to the industry and commerce of Africa.

That for these purposes a society be immediately formed, called the AFRICAN INSTITUTION.

That the nobility, clergy, and gentry, of the United Kingdom be generally invited to become members thereof; and that a subscription be opened in the metropolis, and all the cities and chief towns in Great Britain and Ireland, for supplying the expences of the institution.

That his Royal Highness the Duke of Gloucester be requested to do the society the honour of accepting the office of patron.

That a committee be immediately appointed to draw up laws and regulations for the government of the society, and to report the same to a general meeting to be held for that purpose, at Freemasons' Hall, on the 12th day of May next.

That the following noblemen and gentlemen be requested to be members of the said committee:—His Royal Highness the Duke of Gloucester, Earl Spencer, Earl Moira, Earl of Euston, Viscount Howick, Lord Grenville, Bishop of London, Bishop of Durham, Bishop of Bath and Wells, Bishop of St. David's, Lord Holland, Lord Ellenborough, Lord Erskine, Chancellor of the Exchequer, Lord Valentia, Lord Teignmouth, Lord Headly, Lord Henry Petty, Right Hon. Thos. Grenville, Right Hon. G. Canning, Right Hon. J. C. Villiers, Right Hon. Sir J. Newport, Right Hon. J. Forster, Right Hon. J. Smyth, Right Hon. N. Vansittart, Sir P. Francis, K. B. Sir Samuel Romilly, General Vyse, Henry Bankes, Esq. M. P. Thos. Bernard, Esq. T. Babington, Esq. M. P. T. Baring, Esq. M. P. R. Barclay, Esq. H. Brougham, Esq. J. H. Browne, Esq. M. P. Colonel Barry, M. P. J. Clarkson, Esq. C. Grant, Esq. M. P. Rev. J. Giborne, W. Huskisson, Esq. M. P. S. Lushington, Esq. M. P. J. B. S. Morritt, Esq. Z. Macaulay, Esq. Matthew Martin, Esq. M. Montague, Esq. M. P. W. M. Pitt, Esq. M. P. Granville Sharp, Esq. Richard Sharp, Esq. M. P. John Simeon, Esq. M. P. Wm. Smith, Esq. James Stephen, Esq. Robert Thornton, Esq. M. P. Henry Thornton, Esq. M. P. Rev. J. Venn, S. Whithread, Esq. M. P. W. Wilberforce, Esq. M. P.

Thanks were voted to Mr. Wilberforce, Mr. Granville Sharp, Mr. Clarkson, and to his Royal Highness the Duke of Gloucester.

The above is taken from the public prints, published by authority of the meeting. We have, by a gentleman present, been furnished with a few remarks, which, to the cre-

dit of the individuals concerned in this admirable institution, we hail as an omen of the future honour and glory of these kingdoms.

After the resolutions had been moved, and read, and seconded, and Lord Spencer had spoken to them, another gentleman praised the abolition very warmly; and mentioned how much it was indebted to the unwearied and indefatigable exertions of Mr. Wilberforce. This brought forward Mr. Wilberforce; who in one of the neatest, most humane, and modest discourses we ever heard, disclaimed the assumption of so much merit. "There were others, a multitude of others," he said, "who had toiled with him; who had fought by his side, and who had encouraged him, under every discomfiture, to go on. Happily they had at last succeeded; and, though many had partaken in the guilt of this trade, yet one great town particularly concerned in it, had now made honourable amends by returning for their representative a gentleman, the whole tenor of whose life had shewn him to be inimical to the slave trade." Thus alluded to, Mr. Roseoe, in a manly, firm and decisive speech, pledged himself, and his constituents, for the support of this institution; yet represented Mr. Wilberforce as the great leader in the abolition, for which he had the approbation of this country, of all civilized countries, and of his God. Mr. Wilberforce again disclaimed acting alone; "he acted," he said, "with multitudes; and would again act with them, in endeavouring to convince the poor Africans that we were their neighbours and friends;—we would strive to convince them of our intentions, by a fair trade and intercourse; but, that all must be done softly and by degrees; smoothly and tenderly; without even an appearance of violence or overbearing; by these and such like, means, little doubt remained but that the African Continent might in time become a new source of comfort, of trade, and of everlasting honour to the British nation."

As the question was about to be put, a gentleman laid in a claim for Manchester; which town he said would, as she had heretofore, most heartily join in this good and salutary measure.

A divine\*, in a pretty long eulogium on the labours and the example of Mr. Granville Sharpe, moved the notice and thanks of the meeting to that gentleman; which again brought forward Mr. Wilberforce; who said, "that really there were so many who had led the way in this great and good work, that he knew not, singly, to whom the praise was due; but if there was any preminence, certainly Mr. Granville Sharpe had it; and he gave him most heartily and cordially his indi-

vidual thanks, for the great encouragement which by his unwearied and long exertions he had given to this unrivalled object of his wishes, the abolition of the slave trade."

As the question of adjournment was about to be put, Mr. Smith rose, with an apology for not presenting himself sooner to the company;—but there was yet, he said, one more gentleman to whom he hoped the company would seize this opportunity of marking their approbation, for his writings and his labours in this glorious cause; he meant Mr. Thomas Clarkson.

Mr. Wilberforce again addressed the company, which was evidently interested whenever he presented himself to them. He said, that, certainly a gentleman, who while yet a student at college, had obtained the prize for a poem on the Abolition of the Slave Trade; and had since uniformly contributed his support in this great work: certainly such a gentleman did merit every earthly mark of approbation.

The meeting was most respectably attended; and appeared to be very greatly gratified with the unaffected and easy manners of his Royal Highness the Duke of Gloucester, who presided, and promised a continuance of his support both in and out of parliament, to this infant but praiseworthy institution, as following up, for the mutual benefit of the poor and violated African, and these kingdoms, the successful abolition of the slave trade, changing that odious name for the more pleasing and extensive one of the African Institution.

We have already in our memoirs of Adamson, Panorama, Vol. II, p. 353, called the attention of the benevolent friends of Africa to the *natural productions* of that country: and it is extremely probable, that a continent so extensive, and regions so peculiar (and fertile, in some places) should produce other articles of great utility, with which we are little, if at all, acquainted.

We recommend particular attention to this principle, because, there can be no risque of failure, or other untoward events, attending the cultivation of plants natives of the soil, or the rearing of animals proper to the climate, or the procuring of whatever the earth yields, so far as it is subjected to the industry of man. Not that we mean to exclude the cultivation of articles, at present foreign: but, to give a decided preference to those which are already naturalized. Neither is it of small consequence to regulate our imports to Africa; spirituous liquors, especially, have produced infinite mischief.

The reports of this Society will, no doubt, come repeatedly under our consideration.

\* We believe, the Rev. John Owen, of Fulham.

## PARLIAMENTARY HISTORY.

CHAP. IV.—*Indian Affairs—Grants of Places in Reversion—Duchy of Lancaster—Irish Finance—Exports and Imports—Explanation of late Occurrences in the Ministry.*

In the House of Commons, on Monday, March 23, Sir Thomas Turton moved for various papers respecting the assumption of the Carnatic by our government in India, the position of the lawful prince, &c. Several of these motions, under a proposed modification by Mr. Tierney, were carried.

On the Wednesday following, Sir P. Francis observed, that the circumstances of the times, and the unfavourable accounts from India, rendered necessary a few questions to the Right Honourable Gentleman now, or lately at the head of the Board of Control. The first question was, why the financial state of India had not been presented to the House? It would be recollect'd, that we were now two years in arrear, and that the India Budget, which ought to have been submitted last year, had not made its appearance. The second question was, whether he (Mr. Tierney) had received any farther advices relative to the dreadful transactions at Vellore; transactions which, he ventured to say, might lead to consequences infinitely more dreadful, infinitely more dangerous, than could the effects of ten battles, let the result of them be what they might? The third and last question was, whether he had not received advices of new and violent disturbances in the Carnatic? Reports signified, that the Governor of Madras had been obliged to solicit from General Maitland, Governor of Ceylon, all the European aid he could furnish. Mr. Tierney answered, that circumstances had as yet rendered it impossible for him to submit the financial affairs of India to the House. Respecting the business at Vellore, he could state no more than was already before the public. Relative to disturbances in the Carnatic, the accounts received, only mentioned the fact, that one of our officers in the west point of the peninsula, had found occasion to call on General Maitland for aid; that the General had immediately furnished him with supplies, and had sent as speedily as he could, an account of the matter to the Directors; of course, it would if called for, be produced.

MARCH 24.—This evening (Monday) Mr. Banks agreeably to notice, moved, "that no office, place, emolument, or salary, ought hereafter to be granted to any person or persons, in any part of his Majesty's dominions *in reversion*." This motion produced a discussion of considerable length; in the course of which, some acrimonious allusions were made on one side to the Grenville family, who were said to be secured of £60,000 in reversion; and on

the other, to Mr. Perceval, who was said to be about to receive a grant of the Chancellorship of the duchy of Lancaster for life, as an inducement for him to accept a place under the new ministerial arrangements. Leave was at length given to bring in a Bill conformable to the proposed resolution. On the following day, Mr. Martin agreeably to a notice which he gave in the course of this discussion, moved, "that a humble address be presented to his Majesty, that he will be graciously pleased not to grant the Chancellorship of the Duchy of Lancaster, or any other place or appointment during life, but during pleasure." Mr. Martin observed, that it was reported, that an Honourable and learned friend of his, Mr. Perceval, had been appointed to a situation of considerable dignity, which had emoluments and honours annexed to it, sufficient to gratify any reasonable man; notwithstanding which, it was also reported, that the place of Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster was added to it, and for life, as a boon, and an inducement to accept the other appointment. This he considered as being both illegal and unconstitutional. He had searched the records, and he could find but two instances of this appointment for life, since the year 1605. The first was to Lord Lechmere, in 1717; the second was to Lord Ashburton, in 1782; neither of which bore the least similitude to the case of the gentleman to whom he now alluded. The former nobleman obtained it as a reward for services done, after a long life spent in the laborious duties of his profession in the law, of which he was deprived, and no door left for him, whereby to have again recourse to it. The same was precisely the case with Lord Ashburton; he had filled the office of Solicitor General, and by the most splendid talents had arrived at the head of his profession, which with all due deference to the Right Honourable Member, could not yet be said of him. It might be asked, why this motion was not made while the late ministers were in office? His answer was, that their integrity required no such effort. Mr. Martin's motion was seconded by the Hon. Mr. Ward. On the question being put, Mr. Perceval rose and observed, that his anxiety on a subject which affected him particularly, was his inducement for appearing in the House that night. It having been resolved, he said, in a certain quarter, to take the administration of affairs out of the hands of the then ministers, it was intended, at the same time, to confer on him a high office, together with the situation which was the subject of discussion. He should at the present time, have been in possession of both places, if his honourable and learned friend had not given notice of this motion; but he felt it a duty and respect due to Parliament, to advise that the king should be at liberty to take into his consideration the sense of the House

on this question, which in some measure involved his undoubted prerogative. Having given this advice, he should now assure the House, that whatever might be the pleasure of his Majesty with regard to himself, it was his determination to serve him in the high office to which his Majesty had signified his intention of appointing him; but he should so accept the situation, as to leave his sovereign at liberty to yield to the address of the House, should the result of the discussion require it. He candidly avowed, that he meant to take the Chancellorship of the Duchy of Lancaster for the sake of his family, to whom he thought he owed some compensation for the emoluments which he should relinquish, because his professional practice would be incompatible with the discharge of his official duty. After a debate of some length, the House divided on the motion: for it, 208; against it, 115; majority, 93. An address was accordingly presented to his Majesty; which, April 8, received the following answer:—

“ That his Majesty received the humble Address of his faithful Commons; and that, in consequence of that Address, he had granted the office of the Duchy of Lancaster during his pleasure only.—At the same time, he acquainted his faithful Commons, that in exercising that part of the prerogative of the Crown vested therein by law of granting offices for life, his most anxious wish has uniformly been the welfare of his people.”

MARCH 25.—Sir John Newport in a Committee of Ways and Means, on Irish Finance, stated the supply already voted for the current year, and the terms of a Loan just made for £1,500,000. It was his wish to have made the contract for it in such a way as to have had the whole sum lodged in the Bank of Ireland. It was gratifying however, considering circumstances, that it had been done so well; as the increase beyond that of last year, was no more than 1s. 9d. in the £100. The whole of the supply required for the year ending January 1808, was £9,161,218, which was considerably exceeded by the Ways and Means, insomuch, that this year there would be a surplus of £160,000. The additional taxes had exceeded the estimate of last year; the customs had increased; the excise had increased; the trade of the country had increased; ships, tonnage, and seamen, had increased, in number and importance; and British ships, in their trade with that part of the United Kingdom, had considerably increased, while the number of foreign vessels had diminished in proportion. Relative to the monies and balances lying in the hands of different collectors, and due to the public:—Upwards of £17,000 had been recovered in the last year; and he had hopes that much more would be obtained in a short time. The respective resolutions were put and carried.

MARCH 26.—This evening in the Upper House, Lord Auckland, in moving for the production of certain accounts relative to the trade of the country, detailed the total of the imports and exports for several years, which exhibited a progressive increase to 1806 inclusive, for which year the imports amounted to £31,300,000, and the exports to £43,200,000.

On the same evening, after Lord Hawkesbury had moved, that the House do adjourn to Wednesday April 8. Lord Grenville rose for the purpose of explaining to their Lordships, previously to their adjournment, the circumstances which had led to the important change in his Majesty's Councils. He had applied hésaid, for the royal permission to that effect; and his Majesty with that benignity, goodness, and love of justice which characterised his whole reign, had granted his request in the most ample form. He remembered about six years ago, the then existing ministry thought it their indispensable duty, both to themselves and to their country, to retire from office. Of that ministry he formed a part, and when he recollects the cause of its resignation, he did not repent his conduct then, any more than he regretted the course which he now adopted; but he could not forget, that on that occasion, the character of the government, and its motives in taking the step alluded to, were made the subject of misrepresentation. On the present occasion then, when a change had been effected, not the result of the resignation of his Majesty's ministers, but of the exercise of his Majesty's unquestionable and undoubted prerogative, it was natural that he should wish to guard against misrepresentation, and that he should be anxious to make an open, plain, and distinct avowal of his conduct, of the reasons which had directed it, and of the whole grounds on which this business actually rested. But he had a still stronger inducement to make this explanation, and a still stronger claim to their Lordship's indulgence. He alluded to a publication in one of the Newspapers on the subject; and he should be glad to know in what period of our history it had happened, that a publication of confidential minutes, between the Sovereign and his Ministers had been made through such a channel?—of those communications, which the confidential ministers of the crown had thought it their duty to make to their sovereign?\* If the persons seeking such publication, found that bad advice had been given to the king they might have recommended it to his Majesty to com-

\* His Lordship here alluded to a series of letters published in the *Morning Post*, with the signature of “A PROTESTANT;” in one of which, was given the substance of certain Cabinet Minutes.

nunicate that bad advice to Parliament, and to call for punishment on the offending parties, but nothing of this had been done. His Lordship again adverted to 1801, when he had felt it his duty, in common with his colleagues, to propose a large additional indulgence to the Catholics of Ireland, observed, that any person entertaining such a wish, had no design against the established religion, against the Church or State. It would be sufficient to say, that the proposed indulgence had been a favourite measure with both Mr. Pitt and Mr. Fox. Coming down to a later period, his Lordship stated, that proposals had been made to him about returning to office; to all of which, his answers were, that his Sovereign might command his services whenever he pleased, to him he was bound by every tie of duty and affection; but that he never would forego the liberty of stating to Parliament his sentiments on the Catholic question. The proposals so made to him had not their intended effect. A situation arose, which induced the Catholics of Ireland to submit their cause to the consideration of Parliament, and he was selected to present the petition. It was not true, that the assistance of the Catholics in bringing about the Union with Ireland, was purchased by a promise of granting this indulgence on the completion of that measure; but it was true that Ministers did severally give a pledge, that in the event of the Union, the claims of the Catholics should be brought before Parliament. The result of the Petition it was unnecessary to state. After the death of Mr. Pitt, his Lordship had been called into office; and in common with his colleagues, as no pledge had been given to the contrary, he felt himself at liberty to offer to his Sovereign what should seem to him the best advice. The object of Ministers was, to knit the hearts of every description of his Majesty's subjects; and from the disposition of the Lord Lieutenant for Ireland, whom they selected, a strong opinion was entertained, that the existing laws of that country might be executed, so as to satisfy the Catholics, and conciliate them for the time. Steps were taken to prevent the agitation of the grand question; but in the course of last year, symptoms of disturbance were manifested. These however, were composed, by the exertions of the civil and judicial authority, without having recourse to extraordinary means. Such was the situation of Ireland at the commencement of the present Session. The destruction of Prussia left to France a large disposable force, and it therefore became necessary to make our military force equal to the issue. He thought that the best course to defeat the designs of the enemy, was to induce the population of Ireland to enlist largely and liberally; but until the higher classes, he meant the younger branches of them, should enjoy the full privilege

of English officers, their efforts would never be effectually exerted to that purpose; with this view, the measure which he still considered as before Parliament, was framed. Another motive was, that as Ministers had reason to think that forbearance exercised by Catholics last year, did not continue this year, the adoption of this mild measure might operate as an inducement for them to remain quiet some time longer, without pressing the general question. Fourteen years ago, the Irish Catholics were admitted to hold commissions in the Irish army, and in the navy also; with the exception of Muster-masters-general on the Staff, and Commanders in Chief. But if no other argument could be adduced in favour of the proposed measure, he would ask whether we could ever be a really United Kingdom in our present situation? In Ireland, the king might grant to a Catholic any rank in the army, excepting the highest command; but the moment the regiment landed at Liverpool, the Irish Catholic Officer must either desert his colours, or continue to serve, under the consciousness that he is every day violating the laws of the country which he is called to protect. It was found expedient in Ireland, in 1778, to open to Protestant dissenters, not only the army and navy, but all offices whatever. Were we then to adopt the Irish Bill of 1792, the Irish Catholics and Dissenters would be admitted to every thing, and the English Dissenters would be excluded; and he wished to know upon what principle we could give to the Catholics, and withhold from the Protestant Dissenters? Justice, policy, and common sense required, that we should meet the whole case in the shape of a law, to enable all descriptions of his Majesty's subjects to contribute heart and hand in the common cause. His Lordship then proceeded to state the various circumstances which accompanied the introduction and different stages of the Catholic Bill. The draft of it consisted of two things, the adoption of the Irish Act, and the extension; *i.e.* the opening of the army and navy to all Catholic subjects without distinction, on the sole condition of taking the oath of allegiance. To this draft a difficulty was opposed; a repugnance was evinced in the mind of the Sovereign to the extent of the proposed concessions. After a dutiful and respectful representation, however, his Majesty acquiesced. A dispatch was accordingly sent to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, in substance, that every avenue was opened in the military service to the Catholics. On this communication being made to the Catholic body in Ireland, a deputation from that body waited upon the Irish secretary, to ascertain whether their concessions extended higher than the generals on the staff. The secretary observed, in answer, that he presumed *all* commissions were open. A dispatch, to this effect, was received from Ire-

land, and transmitted to his Majesty, who returned it without any answer or comment whatever. The draft of another dispatch, to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, containing the specific clauses which were submitted to Parliament, and empowering his Grace to give an affirmative answer to the Catholic deputations, was then laid before his Majesty. The draft experienced no opposition, and the dispatch was consequently sent to Ireland. Was it possible for the late servants of the crown to have done more?—His Lordship next proceeded to state, that, understanding a disapprobation of the Catholic measure existed in the mind of an illustrious personage, Lord Howick solicited an audience of his Sovereign, and found that that disapprobation actually did exist. But Lord Howick came away from the conference, confident that he had the royal consent for submitting the bill to the legislature. His Lordship (Grenville) had waited at the door of the apartment when the conference was holden, to learn the result; in consequence of which, during the audience that he immediately after had with the Sovereign, he forebore to mention the subject, which, he was free to admit, was always repugnant to the conscientious feelings of his Majesty. The king was equally silent.—The next stage of the business was, that Lord Howick submitted the measure to Parliament. This was on the 3d or 4th of March; but no symptom of disapprobation was manifested till the 11th. It was then, for the first time, that his Majesty's late Ministers distinctly knew that the proposition was positively disapproved by the crown. They knew that there existed a repugnance, from the beginning; but they also knew that a consent had been given by his Majesty, and that consent never was, at any prior period, recalled.—Modifications were afterwards proposed; but finding that nothing could be done, to make the measure accord with the original intentions of ministers, or the hopes of the Catholic party, it was thought proper to drop it altogether. But Ministers felt that some explanation would be called for. They made a reserve to that extent, nor was it at the time objected to; but, soon after, a demand was made, that they should bind themselves, in writing, never to renew their advice on this subject. This they felt to be totally inconsistent with their oaths as privy counsellors; and completely subversive of the British Constitution, as it would shift responsibility from Ministers to the Crown—a doctrine which, contrary to reason, law, and justice, had placed a British monarch at the bar of his subjects, and led him to the scaffold.—His Lordship concluded with earnestly impressing on the House, and on the new Ministers, the propriety and necessity of an enlightened and

liberal policy towards Ireland, and towards preventing the renewal of religious animosities in the kingdom at large.

Lord Sidmouth next rose; and observed, that, had it not been understood, by the late Ministers, that the wishes of the Sovereign were friendly to the measure, or at least that his permission had been given to submit it to Parliament, their Lordships would not have been troubled on the present occasion. Equally anxious to preserve that sacred and fundamental maxim of our national policy, that, "the king can do wrong," he was glad that the Noble Lord had determined to refuse subscribing to any article or agreement which by depriving him and his colleagues of all free agency, would inevitably have involved the conduct and character of his Majesty. It was evident that a misconception had existed on both sides; neither he nor the Noble Lord on the Woolsack, had been present at any of the interviews alluded to. He was as warm a friend as any man in the empire to the exercise of charity and liberality toward our Catholic fellow subjects; yet he would always discriminate between *toleration* and *power*; and had he been present at those interviews, he should not have shrunk from his duty, in declaring, that whatever might be the consequences of such a refusal, it was the bounden duty of his Majesty's Ministers to repress rather than to encourage the spirit of Catholic remonstrance and demand.

Lord Hawkesbury aware that the explanation which had been given, was likely to be made, stated, that he had applied for, and obtained his Majesty's permission to make such observations as might be necessary to place the transactions which had recently occurred, in the clearest point of view. The substance of his Lordship's statement was, that his Majesty, when he gave a reluctant and guarded assent to the proposition relative to the Catholics, concluded that it was not to exceed the principle of the Irish Act of 1793. When the measure assumed the form a Bill, it was discovered that Ministers used the term *principle*, with a latitude of signification not unusual; whereas his Majesty applied it in its more strict sense; conceiving, that while the proposed measure was to grant all the *concessions* of the Irish Act, it was to contain also, the whole of its *limitations*.

Several other members delivered their sentiments; after which, the Marquis of Stafford gave notice of a motion for April 8, to which day the House adjourned.

On the same evening in the House of Commons, after Mr. Huskisson had made a motion for adjournment, Lord Howick rose, and entered into an explanation of the conduct of Ministers similar in substance to that which was given by Lord Grenville in the Upper House.

## CAPTURE OF MONTE VIDEO.

[For a particular Account of the Town of Monte Video, and the Country adjacent, Vide Panorama, Vol. I. p. 376, and Vol. II. p. 161.]

The London Gazette Extraordinary, April 13th, 1807.

Monte Video, February 6, 1807.

Sir.—I have the honour to inform you, that His Majesty's troops under my command have taken by assault, and after a most determined resistance, the important fortress and city of Monte Video.—The Ardent, with her convoy, arrived at Maldonado on the 5th Jan., and I immediately took under my orders the troops from the Cape, commanded by Lieut.-Col. Backhouse. On the 13th I evacuated that place w<sup>th</sup>out opposition, leaving a small garrison on the island of Gorriti.—On consulting with Rear Adm. Stirling, it was determined to attack Monte Video; and I landed on the morning of the 18th, to the Westward of the Caretas rocks, in a small bay, about 9 miles from the town. The enemy were in great force, with guns on the heights, when we disembarked; but they did not advance to oppose us, and suffered me to take a strong position, about a mile from the shore. A trifling cannonade, and some firing at the outposts, commenced in the afternoon, and continued occasionally during our stay on that ground.—On the 19th we moved towards Monte Video. The right column, under the Hon. Brig. Gen. Lamley, was early opposed. About 4000 of the enemy's horse occupied two heights to his front and right. As we advanced a heavy fire of round and grape opened upon us; but a spirited charge in front, from the light battalion under Lieut. Col. Brownrigg, dispersed the corps opposed to him, with the loss of a gun. The enemy on the flank did not wait a similar movement, but retreated. They continued retiring before us, and permitted us, without any further opposition, except a distant cannonade, to take up a position about 2 miles from the citadel. Our advanced posts occupied the suburbs, and some small parties were posted close to the works; but in the evening the principal part of the suburbs was evacuated.—The next morning the enemy came out of the town, and attacked us with their whole force, about 6000 men, and a number of guns. They advanced in 2 columns; the right, consisting of cavalry, to turn our left flank, while the other, of infantry, attacked the left of our line; this column pushed in our advanced posts, and pressed so hard on our out-piquet, of 400 men, that Col. Browne, who commanded on the left, ordered 3 companies of the 40th, under Major Campbell, to their support: these companies fell in with the head of the column, and very bravely charged it; the charge was as gallantly received, and great numbers fell on both sides; at length the column began to give way; when it was suddenly and impetuously attacked in flank by the rifle corps, and light battalion, which I had ordered up, and directed to the particular point: The column now gave way on all sides, and was pursued, with great slaughter and the loss of a gun, to the town. The right column, observing the fate of their compa-

nions, rapidly retired without coming into action.—The loss of the enemy was considerable, and has been estimated at 1500 men; their killed might amount to between 2 or 300; we have taken the same number of prisoners, but the principal part of the wounded got back into the town; I am happy to add that ours was comparatively trifling.—The consequences of this affair were greater than the action itself. Instead of finding ourselves surrounded with horse and a petty warfare at our posts, many of the inhabitants of the country separated and retired to their several villages, and we were allowed quietly to set down before the town.—From the best information I could obtain, I was led to believe that the defences of Monte Video were weak, and the garrison by no means disposed to make an obstinate resistance; but I found the works truly respectable, with 160 pieces of cannon; and they were ably defended.—The enemy being in possession of the island of Ratones, commanded the harbour; and I was aware that their gun boats would annoy us, as we approached. A 2 gun battery was constructed on the 23d to keep them in check, and our posts were extended to the harbour, and completely shut in the garrison on the land side. Their communication was still, however, open by water, and their boats conveyed to them troops and provisions: even water for the garrison was obtained by these means, for the wells that supply the town were in our possession.—On the 25th we opened batteries of 4 24-pounders and 2 mortars, and all the frigates and smaller vessels came in as close as they could, with safety, and bombarded the town. But finding the garrison was not intimidated into a surrender, I constructed, on the 28th, a battery of 6 24-pounders, within 1000 yards of the south east bastion of the citadel, which I was informed was in so weak a state that it might be easily breached. The parapet was soon in ruins, but the rampart received little injury, and I was soon convinced that my means were unequal to a regular siege; the only prospect of success that presented itself, was to erect a battery as near as possible to a wall by the south gate, that joins the works to the sea, and endeavour to breach it. This was effected by a 6-gun battery within 600 yards, and though it was exposed to a very superior fire from the enemy, which had been incessant during the whole of the siege, a breach was reported practicable on the 2d inst. Many reasons induced me not to delay the assault, though I was aware the troops would be exposed to a very heavy fire in approaching and mounting the breach. Orders were issued for the attack an hour before day break the ensuing morning, and a summons was sent to the governor in the evening to surrender the town. To this message no answer was returned.—The troops destined for the assault consisted of the rifle corps under Maj. Gardner, the light infantry under Lt. Col. Brownrigg and Maj. Trotter, the grenadiers under Maj. Campbell and Tucker, and the 38th regt. under Lt. Col. Vassal and Maj. Nugent.—They were supported by the 40th regt. under Maj. Dalrymple, and the 87th under Lt. Col. Butler and Maj. Miller. The whole were commanded by Col. Browne. The remainder of my force, consisting of the 17th Light Dragoons, detachments of the 20th and 21st Light Dragoons,

the 47th regt., a company of the 71st, and a corps of 700 marines and seamen, were encamped under Brig. Gen. Lumley to protect our rear.—At the appointed hour the troops marched to the assault. They approached near the breach before they were discovered, when a destructive fire from every gun that could bear upon it, and from the musketry of the garrison, opened upon them. Heavy as it was, our loss would have been comparatively trifling if the breach had been open, but during the night, and under our fire, the enemy had barricaded it with hides so as to render it nearly impracticable. The night was extremely dark. The head of the column missed the breach, and when it was approached it was so shut up that it was mistaken for the untouched wall. In this situation the troops remained under a heavy fire for a quarter of an hour, when the breach was discerned by Capt. Renny of the 40th Light Inf., who pointed it out, and gloriously fell as he mounted it. Our gallant soldiers rushed to it, and, difficult as it was of access, forced their way into the town. Cannon were placed at the head of the principal streets, and their fire, for a short time, was destructive: but the troops advanced in all directions, clearing the streets and batteries with their bayonets, and overturning their cannon. The 40th regt. with Col. Browne followed. They also missed the breach, and twice passed through the fire of the batteries before they found it.—The 47th regt. was posted near the north gate, which the troops who entered at the breach were to open for them, but their ardour was so great that they could not wait. They scaled the walls and entered the town as the troops within approached it. At day-light every thing was in our possession except the citadel, which made a shew of resistance but soon surrendered, and early in the morning the town was quiet, and the women were peacefully walking the streets.—The gallantry displayed by the troops during the assault, and their forbearance and orderly behaviour in the town speak so fully in their praise, that it is unnecessary for me to say how highly I am pleased with their conduct. The service they have been engaged in since we landed, has been unconsciously severe and laborious, but not a murmur has escaped them; every thing I wished has been effected with order and cheerfulness.—Our loss during the siege was trifling, particularly as we were not sheltered by approaches, and the enemy's fire of shot and shells was incessant. But it is painful for me to add that it was great at the assault. Many most valuable officers are among the killed and wounded. Maj. Dalrymple of the 40th was the only field-officer killed. Lt. Cols. Vassal and Brownrigg, and Maj. Tucker are among the wounded. I am deeply concerned to say that the two former are severely so. The enemy's loss was very great, about 800 killed, 500 wounded, and the Governor, Don Pasquill Ruis Huidobro, with upwards of 2000 officers and men, are prisoners. About 1500 escaped in boats or secreted themselves in the town.—From Brig. Gen. the hon. W. Lumley and from Col. Browne, I have received the most able and the most zealous assistance and support. The former protected the line from the enemy during our march, and covered our rear during the siege.

The latter conducted it with great judgement and determined bravery.—The established reputation of the royal artillery has been firmly supported by the company under my orders, and I consider myself much indebted to Captains Watson, Dickson, Carmichael, and Willgress, for their zealous and able exertions. Capt. Fanshaw of the engineers was equally zealous, and though young in the service conducted himself with such propriety that I have no doubt of his proving a valuable officer. Owing to great fatigue he was taken ill in the midst of our operations, and capt. Dickson readily undertook his office, and executed it with the greatest judgement.—From the heads of corps and departments, from the general staff of the army, from the medical, and from my own personal staff, I have received the most prompt and cheerful assistance.—It is insufficient to say, that the utmost cordiality has subsisted between rear-adm. Stirling and myself; I have received from him the most friendly attention, and every thing in his power to grant.—The captains and officers of the Navy have been equally zealous to assist us; but I feel particularly indebted to Capts. Donnelly and Palmer for their great exertions. They commanded a corps of marines and seamen that were landed, and were essentially useful to us with the guns, and in the batteries, as well as in bringing up the ordnance and stores.—This dispatch will be delivered to you by Major Tucker, who was wounded at the assault; and as he has long been in my confidence, I beg leave to refer you to him for further particulars.—I have the honour to be, &c.

S. AUCHMUTY,  
Brig. Gen. Commanding.

To the R. Hon. W. Windham, &c. &c. &c.

P. S. I am extremely concerned to add, that Lt. Cols. Vassal and Brownrigg both died yesterday of their wounds. I had flattered myself with hopes of their recovery; but a rapid mortification has deprived His Majesty of two most able and gallant officers.

*Killed, wounded, and missing.* 1 major, 4 captains, 3 lieutenants, 2 sergeants, 6 drummers, 126 rank and file, killed; 2 lieutenant colonels, 2 majors, 6 captains, 10 lieutenants, 5 ensigns, 4 staff, 20 sergeants, 6 drummers, 366 rank and file, wounded; 8 rank and file, missing.

*Return of ordnance, ammunition, arms, &c. taken.*

820 round shot, 114 grape shot, 38 bar shot 12 double headed shot, 312 guns, 13 mortars, 10 caronades, 10 howitzers.

*Diadem, off Monte Video, 8th Feb. 1807.*

Sir,—I have peculiar satisfaction in congratulating my Lords Commiss. of Admiralty on the Capture of Monte Video, as well from the importance of the Conquest, as from the honour which has thereby been acquired by his Majesty's Arms.—Immediately on the Arrival of Brig. Gen. Sir S. Auchmuthy, at Maldonado, it was determined to invest this place, and having assembled our force off the Island of Flores, a descent was effected on the 16th ult., near Carreto Point, which is about 7 miles to the eastward of the town. The enemy had assembled in considerable numbers, and with

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several pieces of Artillery seemed determined to oppose our progress.—The navigation of the Rio de la Plata, with the strong Breezes which we have experienced for several weeks, rendered the landing of troops, and assisting their operations, very difficult, but the place chosen was happily adapted to allow the covering vessels, under the direction of Capt. Hardyman, to approach so close as to command the beach, and notwithstanding the weather threatened, and was unfavourable, the soldiers got all on shore without a single accident of any kind; and were in possession of the heights before 6 o'Clock, with such things as the Gen. wanted.—On the 19th the army moved forwards, and as an attempt to harass the rear was expected, I directed boats to proceed close along shore, to look out for and bring off any wounded men, whilst the covering vessels were placed to prevent the enemy from giving annoyance, and I had the happiness to hear that all the sufferers were brought off, in despite of well directed efforts to destroy them. In the evening I dropped, with the fleet, off Chico Bay, near which the army encamped, within 2 miles of the city.—I had landed about 800 seamen and Royal Marines, under the orders of Capt. Donnelly, to act with the troops; and, as I saw no advantage could result from any efforts of ships against a strong fortress, well defended at all points, and which, from the shallowness of the water, could not be approached within a distance to allow shot to be of any use, I disposed the squadron so as to prevent any escape from the harbour, as well as to impede a communication between Colonia and Buenos Ayres, and confined my whole attention to give every possible assistance in forwarding the siege, by landing guns from the line-of-battle ships, with ammunition, stores, provisions, and every thing required by the commander of the forces.—The distance which the ships lay from the shore, with the almost constant high winds and swell we had, and the great way every thing was to be dragged by the seamen, up a heavy sandy road, made the duty excessively laborious. The squadron had almost daily 1400 men on shore, and this ship was often left with only 30 men on board.—The defence made by the enemy protracted the siege longer than was expected, and reduced our stock of powder so low, that the King's ships, with all the transports, and what a fleet of merchantmen had for sale, could not have furnished a further consumption for more than 2 days, when a practicable breach was fortunately made, and on the 3d inst., early in the morning, the town and Citadel were most gallantly carried by storm.—In a conversation with the general on the preceding day, I had made such disposition of the smaller vessels and armed boats, as appeared most likely to answer a desired purpose, and so soon as Fort St. Philip was in possession of the British troops, lieut. W. Milne, with the armed launches, took possession of the island of Ratttones, mounting 10 guns and garrisoned by 70 men, which surrendered without any resistance, although it is well adapted for defence, and might have given considerable annoyance. A very fine frigate mounting 28 guns was set fire to by her crew, and blew up with an awful explosion; as also 3 gun-boats, but the other Vessels in the harbour were saved by the exertion of our peo-

ple.—It has been much the custom to speak slightly of the resistance to be expected from the Spaniards in this country; and with confidence of the facility which has been given to naval operations, by a prior knowledge of the River; but the battles lately fought prove the former opinion to be erroneous and experience evinces that all the information hitherto acquired has not prevented the most formidable difficulties.—The conduct of the captains, officers, seamen, and Royal Marines of the ships and vessels, which I kept with me for this service, has met with my entire approbation, and I feel persuaded that I should have had occasion to express my satisfaction with the exertions of the officers and crews, of the Diomede and Protector, if I had not been obliged to detach them on other Service.—I am much indebted to the able assistance which Cap. Warren has afforded me; and I admire the zeal, the patience, and diligence of every individual in the fleet during the incessant fatigue, which I have daily witnessed.—I have the honour to be, &c.

CHARLES STIRLING.

*Seamen and Marines.* 6 killed, 28 wounded, 4 missing.

*Prizes taken at Monte Video:—*

King's Ships: 4 under 20 guns—6 from 20 to 30 guns.

Merchant ships: 18 under 200 tons—15 from 200 to 300 tons—8 from 300 to 400 tons—2 from 600 to 700 tons—1 of 1000 tons—1 sunk. —Total 57.

*Ordnance, &c. found on and near the Isle of Ratttones.*

11 long guns; 2 launches with 12-pounder carronades; 1 launch with a long brass 6 pounder; 1 pinnacle fitted for swivel guns; 1 large decked launch; 5 unarmed launches; 25 small boats; 50 powder barrels, stove, with side arms, &c. &c.; 71 prisoners.

In addition to the above, we have received the following particulars, which are stated from private correspondence:—

After the breach was entered the troops had to leap down 15 or 16 feet. However, part of the 95th or Rifle Regt. took possession of the church, mounted the roof, and annoyed the citadel. In the church there was great slaughter, as a number of Spaniards had taken refuge there, after firing upon our troops.—A very factious spirit prevailed in the place. The viceroy was rapidly advancing with 4000 cavalry, and was accompanied by the Frenchman Lintiers, who was his chief counselor. The governor was also advised by a Frenchman named Modelle, who, on account of having lost an arm, was better known by the name of 'Mance.' These persons, and some renegadoes, were the rulers of two factions. Sir S. Auchmuty sent in a flag of truce, or rather endeavoured to send one in, on the evening previous to the storm; but, with the utmost insolence, it was not allowed to be received. After the storm, however, the governor endeavoured to procure terms.—The 87th regt. which was posted near the north gate of Monte Video, and scaled the walls before the troops which entered the breach could open the gates, was chiefly, if not altogether, composed of very young men,

who had been lately raised, and never before were in action. Animated, however, by their brave commander, Lt. Col. Butler, they were soon taught to despise all danger, and distinguished themselves in the most gallant manner.—Lt. Col. Brownrigg of the 11th, and Lt. Col. Vassal of the 36th, were mortally wounded while they were gallantly leading the troops to the assault. They were both carried to the same house. Lt. Col. Vassal, who was in an inner room, died the first. On his corpse being brought through the chamber in which Lt. Col. Brownrigg lay, and who had then but a few minutes to live, he exclaimed, "There goes a brave soldier, and I shall soon follow him."—Our cavalry are daily procuring horses; but, in general, they are poor, half starved, weak animals. However, it is to be hoped that we shall have a respectable force. Indeed it is imagined that our cavalry and left brigade will proceed by land to Colonia de Sacramento. The naval arrangements are not yet known; our force, naval and military, is in the highest state of health; the climate is salubrious, and provisions are in abundance.—The utmost endeavours are making to send an expedition against Buenos Ayres; but it is doubtful whether operations will commence prior to the arrival of Col. Craufurd, who is daily expected from England.—Several British ships in the river Plata were preparing for a voyage to Lima, as it was understood that an expedition would be sent against that place. A number of vessels were waiting at Maldonado for a convoy. [Compare Panorama, Vol. II. p. 161.]—Lieut. Fitzpatrick of the 40th regt., who was killed on the first landing of the troops in Caretas Bay, was a most gallant officer. In the last moments of his existence, surrounded by some of his brave but sad companions, he was heard to exclaim, *Dulce et decorum est pro patria mori.*

Extract from the London Gazette, April 14, 1807.

Admiralty-Office, April 14, 1807.

*Copy of a Letter from Rear-Adm. Sir A. Cochrane, K. B. Commander in Chief of His Majesty's ships and vessels at the Leeward Islands, to Wm. Marsden, Esq. dated on board the Northumberland, at sea, 2d Feb. 1807.*

Sir,—I have the honour to inclose, for the information of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, the copy of a letter from Capt. Sayer of His Majesty's ship Galatea, giving an account of the capture of the French national corvette Lynx, one of those which escaped Sir S. Hood's squadron, by the boats of that ship, under the command of Lieut. Coombe.—When it is taken into considerat on the fatigue of so long a row as the boats' crews had before they came up with the enemy, their great disparity in numbers, their having to attack a man of war, under sail, completely prepared for their reception, and their perseverance in the attack, without a chance of support from the ship, after being twice repulsed, I may safely say, that more determined bravery has not been shewn during the war. While I admire their gallantry, I must sympathize with the friends of those who fell in the action. In

the death of Lieut. H. Walker, who was some time ago promoted from this ship, the service has lost a most promising officer. Lieut. Coombe's conduct speaks for itself; although he had before lost a leg, his activity in the execution of his duty has always been remarked; in this action he received a severe, and I fear a dangerous, wound in the thigh, above the former amputation; I therefore feel assured their Lordships will judge him deserving their protection.—I have the honour to be, &c.

A. COCHRANE.

*His Majesty's ship Galatea, Coast of Caraccas, Jan. 22, 1807.*

Sir,—Yesterday morning we discovered, from the mast-head, a sail in the S.E. steering for La Guira, and soon compelled her to another course for Barcelona; about noon it was most y calm, when she appeared to be a man of war, and, by her manœuvre, an enemy; she had now the advantage of us by a breeze, and with her lofty flying sails and sweeps was leaving us fast. At 2 o'clock her top gallant sails were scarcely above the horizon, but in a situation between the ship and the coast, that still afforded me hopes of her, by co-operation of the boats; they pushed off, under the direction of the 1st Lieut. W. Coombe, manned with 5 officers, 50 seamen, and 20 marines; and, after rowing about 12 leagues, in 8 hours (part of the time under a burning sun) they came up with her, going, with a light land breeze, about 2 knots; having first hailed her, our brave fellows instantly attempted to board on both quarters, but by the fire of her guns, which had been all trained aft in readiness, and having to combat, under every disadvantage, with more than double their numbers, were twice repulsed by them. The boats now dropped, and poured through her stern and quarter-ports a destructive fire of musquetoons and small arms, that cleared the deck of many of the enemy, who were all crowded aft; when, after an arduous struggle [a third time] for a footing, our men rushed a board, and in a few minutes drove all before them; the bowsprit and jib-boom were covered; some flew aloft, and others below; the captain and most of his officers were lying wounded on the decks, leaving the remainder of this handful of men in proud possession of the French imperial corvette Le Lynx, of 14 24-pounders carronades, and 2 long 9-pounders, chasers, pierced for 16 guns, and manned with 161 men, commanded by Monsieur Jean M. Yarquest, with dispatches from Guadalupe for the Caraccas; she is 2 years old, and a well equipped fine vessel, in all respects, for His Majesty's service.—At the head of our invaluable men's names, who fell in this quarter of an hour's sharp contest, stands that of the 2d Lieut. H. Walker, of his third wound; of the officers commanding our five boats, only Lieut. Gibson was unhurt. It may be unnecessary to add Lieut. Coombe's report, that every man did his duty. I am satisfied they did.—I am, Sir, &c.

GEO. SAYER.

*To Rear-Adm. the Hon. Sir A. Cochrane, K. B. Commander in Chief, &c.*

*Galatea.—9 killed and 22 wounded—31.*

*Le Lynx.—14 killed and 20 wounded (most of them badly)—34.*

## OBSERVANDA EXTERNA.

## AUSTRIA.

## Apparitions.

The history of Dr. Woetzel's assertion of the re-appearance of his wife after death, has produced several works *pro* and *con* on the question of the possibility of such a fact. M. Schwartz, rector of the Gymnasium of Goerlitz, has lately published a *Discourse on Apparitions*, wherein he shews under what circumstances the imagination may become so heated as to believe that it converses with the dead. He supports his theory by his own experience; and relates, that after a long and obstinate nervous disorder, he saw, a little before his usual dinner time, strange and darkly coloured figures, which resemble those described by M. Nicolaï in the Berlin journal; and those which had presented themselves to M. Vagt, minister at Dantzig.

## DENMARK.

## Island of Mors.

The island of Mors, situated in the N. W. of Jutland, and separated by the great gulph of Limfjord, which penetrates far into the interior of this peninsula, deserves to become the subject of special notice; though hitherto in a manner unknown to the Danes themselves. The population of it is about 8000 persons. *A language peculiar to itself is spoken in it.* A glossary has lately been published containing 700 words unknown elsewhere. This information will interest those who investigate the northern languages.

## FRANCE.

## Blessings of Liberty, à la Française; as reported by a friend who lately escaped from France.

## Politesse Militaire.

The summer before last when camps were formed at Boulogne for the invasion of Britain, Marshall D. of the French army was billeted at the house of a gentleman, which he had built for himself in a handsome stile. After he had been there a short time D. told him the house was not large enough for them both, and requested the gentleman to provide lodgings for himself and family elsewhere, to which he was obliged to submit. Not satisfied with this stretch of arbitrary power, finding the kitchen too confined for his purpose, he pulled down a part of it, and extended it on the ground of another gentleman, without requesting the permission of either.

## Quartiering the Soldiers.

Troops in France and Flanders are generally billeted on the inhabitants: if they cannot accommodate them with a room, bed, and place to cook in, they must procure them a lodging out of the house, for which they usually pay from 14 to 16 pence sterling per

Vol. II. [Lit. Pan. May, 1807.]

day, and they generally have them for ten days at a time, six times at least in the course of the year.

## Mode of Collecting Taxes.

The particular receiver of the contributions, sends a note to the several inhabitants of the different towns and districts, of their taxes for the year; (agreeable to the roll thereof, made up at the town halls, or mayoralties, of the different towns, and districts) payable monthly at his office, a month in advance. In default of payment, he sends a notice thereof to the parties, in writing, by a *garnisai*re, to whom they must pay one franc, in order that their recollection may serve them better in future. If they do not call the next day at his office, and pay the month in advance, he sends them two *garnisaires* and continues sending them an additional one, daily, until the tax be paid: if not paid within a fortnight, he makes a seizure, and sells a sufficiency to pay the *garnisaires* a franc a day each, and the amount of the taxes due. If any are surcharged by the roll, they must petition the prefect of the department, within the *first quarter* of the year, for redress; which they obtain at the *end of the year*, or the beginning of the next; if their claim is admitted: but during the interim, they must continue paying the surcharge, or their petition will not be granted.

## Spies.

The coffee houses and public places of resort are attended by the spies of government, who apprehend people for the least freedom of speech, and deliver them over to the *haute police*, to dispose of them as it thinks fit.

Vide Panorama, Vol. I. p. 591.

## Produce of the Land.

The land produces in the Department of the North.

15*l* Bushells of Wheat, per acre.

11*l* Ditto of other grain.

Annual consumption of meat, per individual in that department, 16lb.

Net average annual income of a family in ditto 390 livres, or £16. 5. sterling.

Net average annual income, per individual in ditto 95 livres, or £3. 10s. 10d.

[Vide Statistique du Département du Nord, par Dauchy.]

## Attempt to Naturalise New Zealand Flax in Europe.

We have already noticed the successful efforts of the French to naturalise cotton and indigo in their southern provinces,\* their attention is now directed to the New Zealand flax, *Phormium tenax*, or *Phormium textile* of the botanists. Capt. Cook first discovered this plant, which unites in a superior degree the useful qualities of the hemp and flax of Europe. It is now cultivated with success

\* Vide Panorama, Vol. L page 200.

in Norfolk Island, and from hence Captain Baudin, in his late voyage round the globe, brought nine plants to France. Under the care of Thouin, these have brought their seeds to maturity, and seedlings have been since sent to the departments of Seine-Inférieure, Hérault, La Drome, Le Var, and to the island of Corsica. The young plants are found to thrive well in the most southern of these provinces.

#### Scientific Adulation.

M. Ventenat, charged by her Majesty the Empress to communicate to the public, all the new species of plants in the garden of Malmaison, has *consecrated by her august name the Joscphinia*, originally from New South Wales, the elevation of its stalk, and the beauty of its flowers, justify the application of this name, from the great resemblance they bear to the *divine original*.

M. de Beauvais has had the happiness to be permitted to *dedicate* to the Emperor Napoleon, a tree from the savage country of Owara in Africa, which from the splendour, the greatness, and the singularity of its flowers well deserves to bear so great a name. It presents the figure of a double crown: and as it is above a year since M. de Beauvais presented it to his Majesty it may justly be deemed a prophetic consecration!!!

(Extracted from the *Compte Rendu des Travaux de l'Institut National pour l'an 12 et 13, par M. Cuvier.*)

#### GERMANY.

##### Manner of restoring Hearing.

Mr. Astley Cooper's manner of restoring hearing to (many) patients, by perforating the tympanum, has met with great success in the practice of M. Michaelis of Marbourg, and especially in that of Dr. Hernold at Cassel, who has restored this faculty to seventy persons out of a hundred on whom he has operated. The attempts made at Berlin, on this principle, have not been nearly so fortunate. Of eighteen individuals who have undergone this operation, only one has recovered his hearing, and that in a very imperfect manner; the others have submitted to sufferings without advantage. It is thought that Dr. Hernold has made some improvement in this practice. The change of character in the party at Berlin, who has been fortunate, is observable: from having been remarkably noisy and quarrelsome, he is become extremely timid and cautious.

##### Beavers in Westphalia.

The *Sincere* (a German Journal, of repute) affirms that there are still beavers in Westphalia on the banks of the Lippe, and that they continue there in spite of the endeavours of the inhabitants to destroy them. This appears, it is said, very evidently, from the great number of trees, which are fallen, on the river sides. The question arising from

this fact, if admitted, is, whether these beavers live in societies, in pairs, or solitary? The question deserves inquiry. Comp. *Panorama*, Vol. II. p. 368.

#### Formation of Human Skulls.

The famous Dr. Gall, whose knowledge in the formation of human skulls, has been trumpeted with marvelous vehemence in most parts of the Continent, after having subjected individuals to his profound science, is determined to subject whole nations, in like manner. He is now studying national craniology. He has, it seems, hitherto sought in vain to discover the *organ of circumspection* in the heroes of the north: but his intention is, to travel over Russia, Sweden, and England, in search of this organ, *and of what else he can find*. We hope for the credit of the United Kingdom, that our *blockheads*, especially those who have adopted the French *crop*, will be careful to keep from under his hand, since otherwise, he may proclaim their deficiency in many other organs,—which may not be convenient. As true-born Britons, indeed, we persuade ourselves that if he finds one organ generally deficient, he will find others which amply supply its place. It is, however, certain, that the German journalists have announced the Doctor's intention to visit France, in a tone of menace to that country; and that very many of the *beaux et belles esprits* of that nation have been terrified at the thought of shewing their heads before him: especially, as it is determined that on his return to Vienna, his long expected work on *criminals*, finished in every part, will immediately appear. Afterwards, in concert with the celebrated Tischbein, he intends publishing a copious *mimica*; and at length his *theory*; which his subscribers impatiently demand.

We do not find that the Dr. has hit on any method of improving those heads which he has hitherto examined, or of supplying their defects: but, if by a little filing and scraping he could abate the protuberant seats of certain affections, (and the affections with them), in some heads, and could increase the energy of certain other organs, in other heads, his researches could not fail of great public utility: though, after all, we venture to think, that if he expects to find the heads of the inhabitants of our British Islands all cast in the same mould, he will be egregiously disappointed in his expectations, come whenever he may.

#### Same Subject; Terror of Dr. Gall's intended Examination influential on Madmen.

The alarm which the intended visit of Dr. Gall to France, has produced among the *heads* of *la bonne société* in Paris, has lately communicated itself even to the public journals; and these, doubtless in mere spite, are endeavouring to decry the learned physician, and to

diminish his popularity in the world. Self-defence may, certainly justify extraordinary efforts; but whether the following article (translated from the *Publiciste*) demonstrates a greater portion of trepidation or of firmness, we submit to the judgment of our readers.

“Dr. Gall has lately acquired fresh subjects of triumph at Stutgard. In opening his course of lectures, he declared explicitly, *to avoid every occasion of scandal to the weak*, that his theory did not lead to materialism, nor destroy freedom of choice, nor excuse those who are guilty; neither did it supply the place of that little window which the malignant Momus wished that Jupiter had placed in the breasts of men, by which their hearts might be seen. Nothing could be more consolatory than this introduction; nothing could exceed in curiosity the manner in which the Doctor afterwards explained his system on the brain, which he considers as a membrane interwoven with an assemblage of nervous ramifications folded into itself. But he did not stop here, he employed those other means by which he is accustomed to provoke public curiosity; and doubtless he is not to be blamed, if these are contradictory to his previous assertions. The experiments to which the Doctor’s sagacity has been subjected, succeeded to a miracle. He found with but little loss of time, the *organ of music* in the cranium of M. Krebs, a singer of the court; that of the *arts* in M. Danneker, a famous sculptor; that of *calculations* of numbers, in certain speculative financiers; that of the *knowledge of places* in sundry who had travelled to distant parts, &c. His successes have not been less among the houses of correction, and in those for the reception of lunatics. He has every where detected by a mere touch of their head pieces, cheats, thieves, and robbers. His more delicate touches are even said to have distinguished the species of folly to which each was addicted. He has pointed out the organs of vanity, those of licentiousness, those of murder, and even those of enthusiasm, more or less, manifestly.

“Leaving to the Doctor the task of reconciling these experiments with freedom of will, the right of punishing such subjects, and other metaphysical maxims, we shall hint, that a curious spectator observed that this inspector of heads, before he *felt* the parties, inspected very narrowly the physiognomy of each. To be sure, the Doctor denies the assistance he derives from this science, and insists on being considered not as a *physiognomist*, but as a *pathologist*. However, our friend affirms that his accurate examination of the *face* ought to be considered as no less a part of his skill than his scientific investigation of the *head*. Nor is it to be thought wonderful, that a physiognomist informed that the subject before him is either a cheat or a robber, should

often hit the truth as to one of these qualities, without feeling his skull to ascertain it.

“But an effect produced by the Doctor’s celebrity has surpassed the extent of his skill. It is observed, that wherever the deranged have been informed that Dr. Gall was coming to examine them, their manners have suddenly diminished in violence, and become more sedate. The keepers of houses for such persons in Stutgard and elsewhere, have been witnesses to this. It is, say some, but natural for those who however far gone in folly, yet make some pretensions to reason; and who flatter themselves of receiving from Dr. Gall that justice which the world denies them. Be that as it may, the fact may be made to answer some useful purpose; for who knows what wisdom may be inspired into fools by threatening them with Dr. Gall, as children are kept quiet by the dread of Raw-head and Bloody-bones?”

It appears from the above, that the Parisians have actually set spies on the worthy Doctor; and that his very looks are watched and reported to the police of the Great Nation; and not without reason, for the cause of that terror which the mere rumour of Dr. Gall’s visit has produced on the continent, is pretty clearly developed we presume in the foregoing article; neither is the subject of Dr. Gall’s work next in order for publication, calculated to diminish this alarm. A Berlin Journal informs us, that it is *An Essay on the Natural History of Man, considered as a Criminal*; in which he investigates with great accuracy, the establishments proper for education, for correction, and for chastisement. His partizans announce this performance as one of the most important ever produced by mortal man on the subjects of public instruction, and preservative police.

#### New Maps.

The Geographical Institution at Weimar announces the publication of the following 17 new maps, as applicable to the situation of Germany, after the Act of Confederation of the Rhine, signed July 12, 1806. viz.

1. Germany, containing the States of the Confederation of the Rhine, with the other States, not joined either with Austria or Prussia.
2. The Austrian Monarchy.
3. Lower and Inner Austria.
4. Bohemia.
5. Hungary.
6. East and West Gallicia.
7. The Prussian Monarchy.
8. Kingdom of Prussia.
9. Silesia.
10. Margravate of Brandenburg and Pomerania.
11. Prussian States in Lower Saxony.
12. In Westphalia.
13. Electoral and Ducal Saxony.
14. Kingdom of Bavaria.
15. Kingdom of Wurtemburg and Grand Dukedom of Baden.
16. Electoral and Grand Ducal Hesse, Dukedom of Nassau, Possessions of the Grand Duke of Berg, and of the Prince Primate.
17. Possessions of the Elector of Wurzburg and of the King of Bavaria in Franconia.

*Typographical Excellence.*

Wolf's *Homer* is spoken of as of the first magnificence in respect to typographical beauty of type, and paper: it is esteemed to be also so correct, that the detection of an error in it, will be rewarded. Each number costs about £3. 13s. 6d. Only 100 copies are printed: 15 of which are subscribed for. The printer, *Geischen* intends to lock up the others as a portion for his eldest daughter. The King of Prussia commissioned one for each of the Universities in his dominions.

**MORAVIA.***Method of recovering from apparent Death.*

Count Fr. Antony de Magnis has had Dr. Struve's Manual on the method to be pursued in recovering those who are struck with apparent death, translated into the Moravian language; and has distributed 20,000 copies. He has had the happiness to learn that many persons have been saved by the means to which he had given such extensive publicity.

**RUSSIA.***War against all Physicians.*

A young physician at Pittsburgh, named Welansky, has published *Prolegomena of a body of physic*, in which he declares war against all physicians, past and present: he insists, that only those who have studied the philosophy of Schelling can cure diseases *pertinently*. Anatomy, physiology, and other sciences are good for nothing: they are all superseded by the divine learning derived from Schelling. The young doctor flatters himself that this great man will shortly visit Pittsburgh, and enlighten it: when, all who do not think as he does, shall be expelled the country. Of course, the other doctors oppose this Quixote; he has been reprimanded in a Russian Journal, to which he is about to reply. However, this paper war may have its use, as no one can write pamphlets and *prescribe* at the same moment.

After all the sarcasms pointed at poor John Bull's marvellous *cullibility*: we do not perceive that he is more easily tripped than the continental wiseacres, whose fluctuations in philosophy, and its objects, bear no inadequate comparison with the variation of our insular atmosphere.

**SPAIN.***Cure for the Hydrophobia.*

Numbers of herdsmen come annually from Soria to spend the winter in Andalusia. In the year 1800 or 1801, a young fellow of one of those tribes that were settled at two or three leagues from Cordova, had the misfortune to become insane. Their small hut, which hardly protected them against the nightly showers, afforded them neither the means of securing themselves, nor of confining their unfortunate comrade. They therefore tied

him to a tree called *Almezo*. Two days afterwards they returned to this spot, in order to see whether he were dead. To their great surprise they found him alive, and covered (as was the tree) with froth, and a black coloured humor, which he had vomited: they discovered not the least symptom of madness in him, but he appeared to be extremely weak. They unbound him, carried him home, and made him swallow some broth, and a little wine. He recovered his strength, and within a very short time was able to tend his flock. The *Rabun*, or chief of the tribe, suspecting that the bark of the tree which the diseased youth had been sucking and chewing during his madness might have operated this wonderful cure, recommended to his men to watch carefully when one of their dogs should be mad. Such a circumstance soon happened. The dog was seized; they administered to him a strong decoction of bark of the *almezo* tree; which was found to produce the same effect on the animal as it had on the young shepherd.

In the French and Spanish dictionaries the *almezo* is called *alizier* (lise or nettle tree). It looks much like an elm, but is not so bushy; the leaves are longer, and of a paler green: its fruit is round, small and sweet. Naturalists call it *celtis*.

As insanity is produced by different causes, each cause must require distinct treatment, and remedies proper to counteract and overcome its violence: but, that accident may furnish us with some medicine capable of relieving delirium, or even insanity, is by no means incredible. There may be in the bark of a tree of some kind, no less virtue against insanity, than there is in the bark of a tree of another kind, against fevers. We have therefore translated the above from a foreign journal, as we think that every hint of an opposing power to a distemper so distressing, deserves attention.

**SWEDEN.***Moël's Translation of Swedenborg's Works.*

It is said, that Gustavus III. offered 30,000 livres to J. P. Moël, who had translated Swedenborg's works from the Latin into French, for his copy: but, the writer refused the premium, in order that his own country, France, might have the honour of publishing them. He is lately dead at Versailles, aged 86.

**SWITZERLAND.***Bust of Haller.*

The bust of the famous Haller, is arrived from Paris at Berne, and is to be placed in the botanic garden; but the subscriptions of the Bernese having fallen short of the expense, a second subscription, not confined to the city, is opened for the reception of further aids.

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## LITERARY PROSPECTIVE.

The Memoirs of John Lord de Joinville, Grand Seneschal of Champagne, written by himself, and translated by Thomas Johnes, of Hafod, Esq. M. P. are on the eve of publication. They contain a History of Part of the Life of Louis XI. King of France, surnamed St. Louis, whose contemporary comrade and friend Joinville was. An account of that king's expedition to Egypt, in 1248, is included. They contain many historical facts not noticed by other historians, and exhibit a picture of the times to which they refer. Mr. Johnes has added the notes and dissertations of M. Ducange, with the dissertations of M. Le Baron de la Bastie on the Life of St. Louis, and of M. L'Evêque la Ravalier, and M. Falconet, on the Assassins of Syria, from the "Mémoires de l'Académie de Belles Lettres et Inscriptions de France." This is the second of the old French historians which has been submitted to the Hafod press in an English translation.

Mr. Johnes has also just finished The Travels of the Lord de la Broquiere, Esquire Carver to Philippe le Bon, who returned from Jerusalem to France overland, about 1455, and reduced the account of his journey to writing, by command of the Duke his master. This author, little, if at all, known to the general reader, treats his subject with that *nauvelé* so characteristic of the period to which this indefatigable translator has devoted his labours.

The Chronicles of Monstrelet, who took up his history from 1400, where Froissart ended, and brought it down to 1467, will be the next work in the series edited by Mr. Johnes, forming a necessary continuation of those interesting and popular chronicles. Monstrelet gives a copious and authentic Account of the Civil Wars between the Houses of Orleans and Burgundy, the occupation of Paris and Normandy by the English, the expulsion of the latter, and other memorable events. We understand that the translation of the first volume is finished, and, by great good fortune, has escaped that calamity which happened at Hafod, on Friday, the 13th of March.

Proposals for publishing by subscription, under the patronage of his Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury, a series of Twelve Perspective Views in Aquatinta, of the Interior and Exterior of the Cathedral Church of Canterbury, are circulated by Mr. Charles Wild.

Lieut. Collins will soon publish, in a duodecim volume, Voyages in Portugal, Spain, Italy, Asia Minor, Egypt, &c. from 1796 to 1801.

Dr. Charles Fothergill, with a view of clearing up some doubtful points in the zo-

logy of Great Britain, in the course of last spring made a voyage to the northern isles, the Orcades, Shetland, Fair Isle, and Fulda, and remained among them during the greatest part of the year, employed in the investigation of their natural history, antiquities, agriculture, fisheries, political importance, manners, customs, condition, &c. &c. a general and particular account of which will shortly be given to the public, accompanied by maps and numerous engravings.

Mr. Clapham has nearly ready for publication a Selection from Skelton's Sermons.

Mr. Bicheno has in the press a second edition of his "Restoration of the Jews," to which he has prefixed a brief History of that singular People. He is also about to publish a Supplement to his "Signs of the Times," with an Answer to Mr. Faber's Objections in his second edition of his Dissertation on the Prophecies.

A third volume of the Evangelical Preacher is preparing for publication.

Proposals have been printed for publishing by subscription, Conciliatory Animadversions on the Controversies agitated in Britain, under the unhappy names of Antinomians and Neonomians. By Herman Witsius, D.D.

Next month will be published, in two editions (fine and common), a new work, entitled, Christian Classics, containing selections from the best moral and religious writers.

The new edition of the English Poets, which has been in the press for some time, is in a considerable state of forwardness. This collection includes not only the series published by Dr. Johnson, but also such of the ancient poets, from Chaucer to Cowley, as appear necessary to illustrate the rise and progress of ancient poetry. Dr. Johnson's series will also be brought down to the present time, by the addition of our most popular authors, from Lyttleton to Cowper. The lives of the poets not included in Dr. Johnson's collection are written by Alexander Chalmers, Esq. F.S.A. The last volumes will contain the best English translations, by Pope, Dryden, &c. &c.

S. E. Bridges, Esq. has a small volume of Poems in the press, which will appear in the course of next month.

A short Latin Poem on the Battle of Trafalgar, with an English prose translation, will be published early in this month.

Mr. Byerly's Conscript, in two volumes, will make its appearance in the middle of the month.

The Eloquence of the British Senate, or Select Specimens from the Speeches of the most distinguished Parliamentary Speakers, from Charles I. to the present time, with biographical, critical, and explanatory notes, in two octavo volumes, will appear in a few days.

A very interesting work, by a member of the University of Oxford, will speedily appear in three volumes, under the title of *Oxoniana*, consisting of anecdotes and facts relative to the colleges, libraries, and establishments of Oxford, with extracts from, and accounts of, the curious unpublished manuscripts of that university; accounts of celebrated members, professors, &c.

Mr. Southey is preparing for publication two volumes of Poems and Miscellaneous Essays, by the late H. K. White, of Cambridge; an excellent and admirable man, whose genius bade fair to have placed him in the first rank of English poets. A Life of the Author, his portrait, and four other plates, will be given.

Mr. Custance, of Kidderminster, is preparing for the press, *A Concise View of the Constitution and Laws of England*, to be dedicated, by permission, to W. Wilberforce, Esq. M. P. and which he intends to publish by subscription.

Dr. H. Robinson, of Edinburgh, has nearly ready for publication, *Discourses on the Nature of Inflammations, and the History, Theory, and Cause of the Venereal Disease*; also, a work on the Natural History of the Atmosphere.

Dr. Hamilton, of Bury St. Edmunds, will publish, in the course of next month, *Observations on the Utility and Administration of Digitalis in Hydrothorax and Consumption*.

Mr. Malcolm has lately sent to the press, *Historical Anecdotes, illustrative of the Charities, Manners and Customs, Eccentricities, Religious and Political Dissensions, Popular Tumults, Amusements, and Dress, of the Inhabitants of London during the Eighteenth Century*, with a general review of the Ecclesiastical Architecture, Sculpture, &c. &c. now extant in the metropolis of Great Britain.

The *Military Annals of Revolutionary France*, from the beginning of the last War to the end of 1807, will be published by subscription, in four large volumes, quarto, by the author of *The Revolutionary Plutarch*, &c. &c. assisted by a general officer, and other eminent military characters. Besides maps of the countries which have been the seats of war, also plans of encampments, sieges, and battles, these volumes will be embellished with portraits of all the commanders in chief of note, and other generals.—Subscription, twelve guineas.

Mr. Wilkinson's account of the Black Sea, its productions, harbours, trade, &c. will appear immediately.

The admirers of Shakespear will be happy to learn, that considerable progress has been made in a new edition of his works, which is intended to exhibit, as to size, paper, type,

text, and orthography, as nearly as possible a fac-simile of the first folio edition.

Mr. Gifford, who has received the assistance of Mr. Whalley's manuscripts, has completed his edition of Ben Jonson's Works; and it is expected shortly to be put to press,

Speedily will be published, *Comments on the Commentators on Shakspeare*; with Preliminary Observations on his Genius and Writings, and on the Labour of those who have endeavoured to elucidate them. By Henry James Pye, Esq. Poet Laureat.

The new edition of the Biographical Dictionary is in a considerable state of advancement, and will probably be extended to eighteen volumes. So copious are the additions and alterations, that this edition, in many respects, may be considered as a new work. Besides the addition of several thousand lives of persons of literary merit, of all nations, a regular series of references will be given throughout the whole; a labour which, although it has delayed the work for some time, will add greatly to its utility,

An octavo edition of Dr. Jortin's Life of Erasmus, under the superintendance of Drs. Raine and Henley, will be published shortly.

A Life of George Morland, embellished with twelve elegant sketches, by Dau, will shortly appear.

An edition of the Life of Dr. Beattie, by the late Sir William Forbes, in octavo, will shortly be published.

The Rev. John Wool has nearly ready for publication a second volume, in quarto, of Biographical Memoirs of the late Rev. Dr. Joseph Warton: with a selection from his Poetical Works, and a Literary Correspondence between Eminent Persons, left by him for publication.

Mr. Mackenzie, of Huntingdon, is preparing for the press, *Memoirs of the Life and writings of Calvin*, accompanied with Biographical Sketches of the Reformation, compiled from the Narrative of Theodore Beza, and other Documents.

Proposals are circulated for publishing by subscription, dedicated by permission to John Soane, Esq. R. A. An Architectural and Scientific Investigation of the Cathedral Church of St. Paul, London, illustrated by Plans, Elevations, Sections, and Parts at large, from actual Measurement; with an Essay on the Life, Writings, and Designs of Sir Christopher Wren, by James Elmes, Architect.

Mr. Bewick, of Newcastle upon Tyne, who has so highly gratified the public by his Graphic Delications of the Animated World, is at this time engaged on a series of Engravings of British Vegetables useful in diet, medicine, and the arts.

Mr. Bunting, of Belfast, has announced the second part of the Collection of the Ancient Music of Ireland.

## UNIVERSITY PROCEEDINGS AND PROMOTIONS.

*Oxford.*

March 9.—Messrs. W. Waring, of Trinity, W. B. Knight, of Exeter, and J. Templar of Wadham college, admitted B. A.

—11. Mr. C. A. Grimes, of Exeter college, admitted B. A.

—13. Rev. B. C. Heming, B.D. and Fellow of Trinity college, admitted D.D.

Rev. R. E. Cracroft, B. A. of Magdalen, admitted M. A. Mr. W. Boscawen, of Trinity, admitted B. A.

—12. Mr. G. Taunton, M. A. and Scholar of Corpus Christi, admitted Fellow.

—10. Rev. S. Smith, B. D. installed Canon of the Cathedral Church of Christ.

—16. In convocation, a petition was sealed and decreed to be presented to Parliament against the bill before the House of Commons, intituled, "A bill for enabling His Majesty to avail himself of the services of all his liege subjects in his naval and military forces, in the manner therein mentioned." Also Mr. T. Gaisford, M.A. and Student of Christ Church, was unanimously elected one of the Delegates of the Clarendon Press, in the room of the Rt. Rev. Bishop of Bangor.

—17. Rev. H. S. Brome, B.A. of Balliol college, admitted M.A. Messrs. H. Heylyn, of St. Mary Hall, and T. Lloyd, of Jesus college, admitted B. A.

—19. Rev. C. Taylor, of Balliol college, and Rev. R. W. Hutchins, of Magdalen college, B. A. admitted M. A. and J. Wilson, Esq. of Magdalen admitted B. A. Grand Compounder.

Rt. Hon. H. Finch, Lord Guernsey, eldest son of the Earl of Aylesford: Sir J. Riddell, Bart. and Mr. W. Peter, of Christ Church, admitted B.A.

The number of determining B. A. this Lent, was 134.

Rev. J. White, LL. B. Fellow of New college, presented by the Warden and Fellows to the rectory of Hardwick, Bucks.

The Bishop of St. Asaph has been pleased to institute the Rev. D. Mytton, M. A. late of Brasenose college, to the rectory of Llan-dysil, in the county of Montgomery, on the presentation of the Lord Chancellor.

March 28. On the 9th inst. the Rev. G. A. Lamb of Magdalen coll. was instituted by the Right Rev. the Bishop of Chichester to the Rectory of Iden, and on Saturday to the Rectory of Playden with Guildford, both in the county of Surrey, on the presentation of his brother J. P. Lamb, Esq.

The Rev. G. Hornsby of Christ Church is presented to the Vicarage of Tuck Dean, and nominated to the perpetual Curacy of Ald-

worth, Gloucestershire, both void by the cessation of the Rev. G. Illingworth.

The Right Hon. Lord Hood of Whitley near Coventry, has appointed the Rev. E. Stanton A.M. one of his Lordship's domestic chaplains.

April 4. On the 28th ult. the Rev. W. Bayley, A.M. late Fellow of New coll. was elected Master of the School at Midhurst, in the room of the Rev. Dr. Wooli, who is appointed head Master of Rugby School.

On the 2d inst Mr. Bedford of New coll. on the expiration of his two years probation was admitted Fellow of that society.

On the 3d inst. Mr. Grey of University coll. was elected Fellow of Oriel coll.

Adm. Lord Gardner has been pleased to appoint the Rev. T. Golighly, A.M. of Brazenose coll. and Curate of the united parishes of Chalgrove and Berwick in this diocese, to be one of his Lordship's chaplains.

The Rev. C. Porter A.M. of Brazenose coll. has been appointed President of King's coll. Nova Scotia.

His Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury has presented the Rev. H. H. J. Todd, M.A. Rector of Allhallows, Lombard Street, London, and late Fellow of Hertford coll. to the Rectory of Coulsdon in Surrey.

His Grace has also presented the Rev. W. Van Mildert, M.A. Rector of St. Mary-le-Bow, London, and late Fellow of Queen's coll. to the Vicarage of Farmingham in Kent.

April 11. On the 8th inst. the first day of Easter Term, the Hon. F. Eden and W. M'Michael of Christ Church, S. Selwood and J. J. Hudson of Magdalen coll. B.A. were admitted Masters of Arts. Messrs. P. Acton of Brazenose coll., and C. Barter and J. Elliott of Balliol coll. were admitted Bachelors of Arts.

The same day in convocation the Rev. J. Dean M.A. and Fellow of Brasenose coll. was admitted senior Proctor, and the Rev. E. Copleston M.A. and Fellow of Oriel coll. was admitted junior Proctor. The Rev. J. Hodgkinson and J. Clayton of Brazenose coll., J. Graham of All Souls coll., and W. N. Darnel of Corpus Christi coll. M.A. were nominated Pro-Proctors.

On the 10th inst. W. W. Holland B.A. of Hertford coll. was admitted M.A., and T. Woodd of St. Edmund's Hall was admitted B.A.

This day W. Grant and E. Lloyd, Esq. B.A. of Brazenose coll. will be admitted M.A. grand compounders.

April 18. On the 11th inst. the Rev. W. Marshall of Balliol College, and R. Budd of Corpus Christi College M. A. were admitted B. D.

On the 15th inst. the Rev. J. Horseman M. A. of Corpus Christi College, was admitted B. D.

On the 16th inst. the Rev. J. Kyffin, and J. Parsons B. A. of Brasenose College, were admitted M. A. Messrs. H. D. Griffith of University College, J. Deacon of Brasenose College, and J. B. Davies of Jesus College, were admitted B. A.

On the 16th inst. Mr. H. Huntingford was admitted Scholar of New College.

On the 17th inst. the Rev. W. W. Drake B. A. of Brasenose College, was admitted M. A.

The Rev. W. Chester, A. M. of Merton College, has been instituted to the rectory of Denton in Norfolk, on the presentation of his Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury void by the death of the late Dr. Sandby.

The Rev. G. Thomas B. D. Rector of Doverdale Worcestershire, and late Fellow of Trinity College, has been instituted to the rectory of Overstone in the county of Northampton.

#### Cambridge.

March 20. The following gentlemen were ordained by the Bishop of Peterborough, in the cathedral of that city. *Deacons.* R. Simpson, B. A. St. Mary Magdalen Hall, Oxford; T. Wood, St. Edmund's Hall, Oxford; R. P. Buddicom, B. A. Queen's coll. Camb.; C. R. Rowlett, B. A. Christ coll. Camb.; T. Tatham B. A. St. John's coll. Camb.—*Priests.* C. D. Aplin, M. A. Lincoln coll. Oxford; J. Johnson, M. A. Trinity coll. Camb.; H. Barry, M. A. Queen's coll. Oxford; S. W. Paul.

— 21. A grace passed the Senate for presenting a petition to the House of Commons, against the bill in favour of the Roman Catholics, &c. and on Monday the petition was presented by Lord Euston.

Rev. J. Church, formerly Fellow of Caius college, has been collated to the vicarage of Hoveton St. Peter: with the augmented curacy of Hoveton St. John annexed, in Norfolk; and instituted to the rectory of Frettenham with Stauningham, also in Norfolk, on the presentation of Lord Suffield.

Rev. M. Carthew, M. A. late of Caius coll. has been instituted to the vicarage of Great Matishall with the rectory of Pasley annexed, in Norfolk, on the presentation of the Master and Fellow of Caius coll.

Rev. B. Evans, M. A. is instituted to the rectory of Southelham St. Margaret with Southelham St. Peter, in Suffolk, on the presentation of A. Adair, Esq.

Rev. B. Gilpin, M. A. Fellow of Christ coll. has been presented, by the Bishop of Durham, to the living of Wold-Newton in the county of Lincoln.

Rev. C. Naylor, upper master of the King's school, Canterbury, and formerly of St. John's coll. succeeds to the sixth preachership of that cathedral vacant by the death of the Rev. J. Saunders.

April 3. The Norrision prize is this year

adjudged to the Rev. T. Broadley, M. A. of Trinity College, for his essay on *the fulness of the time when Christ came into the world.*

The Rev. G. G. Stonestreet of Jesus College, was admitted to the degree of Bachelor in Civil Law, on the last day in Lent Term.

April 10. The Rev. Dr. Clarke will begin the second part of his first course of Lectures in Mineralogy, on Tuesday the 14th inst. in the Law Schools; to be continued, as usual, Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays, at one o'clock.

A grace passed the Senate of this University on Wednesday, for presenting an Address to his Majesty, thanking him for his dignified and effectual opposition to the Catholic Measure proposed by the late Ministry.

Cliffe Hatch, Esq. Fellow of King's coll. and the Rev. E. Simons, Fellow of St. John's, were yesterday admitted M. A.

Messrs. J. Monins, and D. Jenks, of St. John's; S. S. Trench, Esq. and Mr. W. S. Round, of Peterhouse; the Rev. W. H. Neale, of Pembroke hall, and Mr. B. Capper, of Magdalen coll. were the same day admitted B. A.

The Rev. B. Syer, B. A. has been licensed to the perpetual curacy of Stoke, near Clare in Suffolk, on the nomination of Sir W. B. Rush, Knt.

April 17. The Address of this University, on the Catholic Question, was presented to his Majesty at the Queen's Palace on Wednesday, by the Rev. Dr. Pearce, Vice-Chancellor, attended by a deputation from the University, consisting of the Rev. Dr. Cory, Dr. Jowett, Dr. Ingle, Rev. Mr. Chevalier, and Mr. Thomson, members of the Caput; Rev. Mr. Gimingham, and Rev. Mr. Gilbert, the Proctors; Mr. Beverley, and Mr. Gunning, Esquire Bedells. There were also present, H. R. H. the Duke of Gloucester; Lord Euston, and Lord H. Petty, Representatives in Parliament for the University; the Rt. Hon. Mr. Perceval; Drs. Craven, Turner, Milner, Sumner, Douglas, and Mansel; and the Rev. Mr. Wollaston. His Majesty returned a most gracious answer to the Address, and the Deputation, Heads, &c. had the honour to kiss his Majesty's hands, and afterwards dined with the Duke of Gloucester at Foley House. As the Address was delivered at the Queen's Palace, the University in general did not attend.

Mr. G. C. Lichfield, of King's coll. is admitted a Fellow.

Rev. W. Chester, M. A. has been instituted to the rectory of Denton, in Norfolk, on the presentation of the Archbishop of Canterbury.

Rev. E. Mellish, M. A. has also been instituted to the rectory of Reymerstone, in Norfolk, on the presentation of T. T. Gurdon, Esq.

## ARMY PROMOTIONS.

January 6, 1807.

**7th Lt. Drag.**—Major W. Tuyl, 5 W. I. R. to be Major, *v. Stuart*.  
**3d Foot.**—Major W. H. Bunbury, 35 foot, to be lieut.-col. by purch. *v. Scott*.  
**4th do.**—Lieut. W. L. Wood, to be capt. by purch. *v. Hutton*.  
**7th do.**—Capt. J. M. Nooth, to be maj. without purch. *v. Prevost*.  
**17th do.**—Lieut. D. Despard, to be capt. by purch. *v. Matthew*.  
**20th do.**—Lieut. J. Murray to be capt. *v. Weldon*.  
**33d do.**—Lieut. R. Young to be capt. without purch. *v. Quin*.  
**35th do.**—Capt. C. W. Clarke, 84th foot, to be maj. by purch. *v. Bunbury*.  
**63d do.**—Lieut. J. Wilson, *royals*, to be capt. by purch. *v. Holworthy*.  
**81st do.**—Major A. Abercromby, 100th foot, to be maj. *v. Plenderleath*.  
**84th do.**—Lieut. J. Carter to be capt. by purch. *v. Clarke*.  
**100th do.**—Major W. S. Plenderleath, 31 foot, to be maj. *v. Abercromby*.  
**51st W. I. R.**—Major J. Stuart, 7 light drag. to be major, *v. Tuyl*.  
**Royal W. I. Rangers.**—Lieut. M. Turner to be capt.  
**Royal Military College.**—Major Howard Douglas, on half-pay of the York Rangers, to be commandant of the senior department, with the rank of lieut.-col. in the army.

January 10.

**Royal Regiment of Horse Guards.**—Gen. H. Duke of Northumberland, K. G. to be col. *v. Field Marshal the Duke of Richmond*.

January 13.

**28th Foot.**—Lieut. S. Zobel to be capt. without purch. *v. Maidland*.  
**59th do.**—Capt. —— Fairfield, 60th foot, to be capt. *v. Lupton*.  
**60th do.**—Capt. W. Lupton, 39 foot, to be capt. *v. Fairfield*.  
**66th do.**—Lieut. C. Benning, 34 foot, to be capt. without purch. *v. Haire*.  
**72d do.**—Capt. H. G. Rooper to be major, by purch. *v. Border*.  
**81st do.**—Capt. H. Milling to be major, *v. Zouch*.  
**96th do.**—Lieut. H. Milbanke, 10th light drag. to be capt. by purch. *v. Lord Aghrim*.  
**10th Royal Veteran Battalion.**—Brevet Lieut. Col. H. Zouch, 31 foot, to be lieut. col.  
**Brevet.**—Capt. A. Salvin, 2d garrison battalion, to major in the army.

January 20.

**3d Reg. Drag. Guards.**—Capt. S. B. Micklethwait, 69 foot, to be capt. *v. Snow*.  
**8th Light Drag.**—Maj. H. Monckton, 3 foot, to be major, *v. Sheddern*.  
**1st Foot.**—Capt. F. Linsingen, 8 gar. batt. to be capt. *v. Roberts*.  
**3d do.**—Major J. Sheddern, 8 light. drag. to be major, *v. Monckton*.  
**6th do.**—Capt. T. W. Brotherton, 3d foot guards, to be capt. *v. Bradford*.

**15th Foot.**—Capt. J. Lombard, from half pay of the 9th foot, to be capt. *v. Rochfort*.**31st do.**—Capt. J. W. Watson to be major, by purch. *v. Sir W. E. Burdett*.—Lieut. F. Eager to be capt. *v. Watson*.**50th do.**—Lieut. H. B. Lygon, 13 light drag. to be capt. by purch. *v. Kingscote*.**55th do.**—Capt. D. Roberts, *royals*, to be capt. *v. Dixon*.**57th do.**—Lieut. J. B. Oliver, 4 drag. to be capt. by purch. *v. Warburton*.**69th do.**—Capt. G. Snow, 3d drag. guards, to be capt. *v. Micklethwaite*.**72d do.**—Lieut. H. Harris, 57 foot, to be capt. by purch. *v. Rooper*.**73d do.**—Major W. G. Harris to be lieut.-col. by purch. *v. Moneypenny*.**81st do.**—Lieut. W. Turing, 18 light drag. to be capt. by purch. *v. Milling*.**8th do.**—Capt. H. Dixon, 55th foot, to be capt. *v. Linsingen*.**10th do.**—Capt. J. Vicary, 73 foot, to be capt.—Capt. R. Humphreys, 57 foot, to be do.

January 22.

**Corps of Royal Military Artificers.**—Second Capt. J. T. Jones, of the corps of royal engineers, to be adj. and quarter master.**Royal Regiment of Artillery.**—Brig. Gen. O. Manley to be col. commandant, *v. Stewart*.—Lieut. Col. W. Bentham to be col. *v. Manley*.—Maj. W. Robe to be lieut.-col. *v. Bentham*.—Capt. P. W. Colebrooke to be major, *v. Robe*.—Second Capt. H. P. Grant to be capt. *v. Colebrooke*.—First Lieut. H. C. Martin to be second capt. *v. Grant*.

January 24.

**5th Foot.**—Lieut. R. Ragueneau Dobson to be capt. by purch. *v. Giv*.**60th ditto.**—Capt. T. Farrer, from half pay 5th foot, to be capt. *v. Souter*.**67th do.**—Lieut. J. Butler, 15 light drag. to be capt. by purch. *v. Pilloid*.**72d do.**—Capt. J. S. Jackson, 3d gar. batt. to be capt. *v. Vicary*.**73d do.**—Capt. J. Murray, 80 foot, to be capt. *v. Kenny*.—Lieut. A. Gray to be capt. by purch. *v. Pearson*.**30th do.**—Capt. E. E. Kenny, 73 foot, to be capt. *v. Murray*.**3d Garrison Battalion.**—Lieut. T. W. Taylor, 6th drag. guards. to be capt. *v. Jackson*.**4th do.**—J. Thomas, Esq. late lieut.-col. of the 28 foot, to be paymaster.**4th Royal Veteran Battalion.**—Capt. H. Cary, 3d royal veteran battalion to be capt. *v. Costello*.**8th Foot.**—Capt. J. N. Maillard, and Lieut. R. Preston, being absent without leave, are superseded.

January 31.

**16th Light Drag.**—Capt. J. Belli, 21 foot, to be captain of a troop, *v. Smith*.**7th Foot.**—Lieut. B. Watson, 30 foot, to be capt. without purch. *v. North*.**21st do.**—Brevet Lieut.-col. C. D. Smith, 16th light drag. to be capt. *v. Belli*.**93d do.**—Ens. —— Majendis, 1 foot guards, to be capt. by purch. *v. Trench*.**1st W. I. R.**—Lieut. J. Archbold, 16 foot, to be capt. *v. Grant*.

## BANKRUPTS.

March 3. J. Hartney, Ironmonger lane, merchant. *Att.* Palmer, and Co. Copthall court, *Att.* Palmer, and Co. Copthall court, *Att.* Heslam, late of Bolton, Lancaster, muslin manufacturer. *Att.* Meadowcroft and Stanley, Gray's Inn. W. and J. Horrocks, late of Stockport, Chester, muslin manufacturers. *Att.* Meadowcroft and Stanley, Gray's Inn.

B. Read the younger, Bridgewater, Somerset, tailor and draper. *Att.* Blake, Cook's court, Carey street. J. Biddle, now or late of Chichester, Sussex, ironmonger. *Att.* Kinderley, Long, and Ince, Symond's Inn. R. Culshaw, Wraghtington, Lancaster, coal merchant. *Att.* Windle, John street, Bedford row. J. Turner, Tooley street, Southwark, warehouseman, cordwainer. *Att.* Brooks, Minster street. March 7. S. Leonard, late of the parish of St. George, Gloucester, victualler. *Att.* Gahan, Lincoln's Inn. W. Heath, late of Rugeley, Stafford, shopkeeper. *Att.* Stocker, Furnival's Inn. J. Vose, late of Preston, Lancaster, cotton manufacturer. *Att.* Barrett, Holborn court, Gray's Inn. J. Easterbrooke, Exeter, hatter. *Att.* Drewe and Co. New Inn.

G. Vaughan, the elder, and R. Mackilwain, Snatchwood, Monmouth, coal merchants. *Att.* Platt, Tanfield court, Temple. W. Hepworth, Manchester, Lancaster, cotton merchant. *Att.* Ellis, Cursitor street.

G. Evans, late of West Houghton, Lancaster, coal merchant. *Att.* Windle, John street, Bedford row. J. Hyde and J. Chadwick, Manchester, dyers. *Att.* Willis, Warrford et. L. Aaron, Gosport, Hants, slopseller. *Att.* Isaacs, Mitre court, Aldgate.

W. Young, Manchester, victualler. *Att.* Johnson and Bayley, Manchester.

J. Pritty, now or late of Hadleigh, Suffolk, grocer. *Att.* Taylor, Southampton buildings, Chancery lane.

F. Tidman, late of Beverley, York, scrivener. *Att.* Willis, Warrford court.

T. Steynor, late of Walsall, Stafford, baker. *Att.* Heiley, Walsall.

W. Leonard, otherwise W. Randall, of Coprice row, Clerkenwell, tailor. *Att.* Hunt, Surrey street, Strand. J. Harkness, Addle street, Wood street, merchant. *Att.* Gregson and Dixon, Angel court, Throgmorton street. March 10. C. A. Eschke, Sierbourn lane, merchant. *Att.* Robinson, Charter house square.

J. Godfrey H. Kieseneck, Sierbourn lane, merchant. *Att.* Robinson, Charter house square.

R. Rotton, High Wycombe, Bucks, cotton merchant. *Att.* Edge, Brown street, Manchester.

S. Proctor, Leeds, York, oilman. *Att.* Hall, Secundaries' Office, Temple.

L. Horner, late of Lancaster, common brewer. *Att.* Bleasdale, Alexander and Holmes, New Inn.

J. Standerwick, late of Bourton, parish of Gillingham, Dorset, sike manufacturer. *Att.* Batten, Yeovil, Somerset.

s. and C. Hollowell, late of Cheshire, Birkley, Chester, joiners and builders. *Att.* Lingard and Dale, Stockport. W. Cox, Leicester, cotton spinner. *Att.* Taylor, Suthampton buildings, Chancery lane.

T. Gilham and W. Weaver, parish of St. Michael Bedwardine, Worcester, drapers. *Att.* Cardale, Hallward and Spear, Gray's Inn.

T. Watkins, late of Broad street, Carnaby market, and Brewer street, Golden square, auctioneer. *Att.* Kermot, Thavies Inn, Holborn.

March 15. C. Kirby, Watford, Herts, dealer and Chapman. *Att.* Greenwell, Beaumont street, Cavendish square. J. Wase, Chipping Ongar, Essex, maltster. *Att.* Harvey, Cursitor street.

J. Daniels, Liverpool, slopseller. *Att.* Meadowcroft and Stanley, Gray's Inn.

R. E. Joynton, late of Bristol, merchant. *Att.* J. Flatt, Tanfield court, Temple.

H. Marsden, Eccleston, of Lancaster, corn merchant. *Att.* Windle, John street, Bedford row.

J. Beak, Rye, Sussex, inn keeper. *Att.* Follett, Paper buildings, Temple.

T. Emmett, Bell's Gardens, Peckham, market gardener. *Att.* Cross, King street, Southwark.

J. Coles, Banbury, Oxford, mealman. *Att.* Bignell, of Banbury.

J. Pickering, Frodsham, Chester, corn merchant. *Att.* Windle, John street, Bedford row.

H. St. John, late of Pennycross, Devon, dealer and Chapman. *Att.* Bone, Rodd, and Davie, Plymouth dock.

J. Wilson, Warwick court, Holborn, coal merchant. *Att.* Goode, Howland street, Fitzroy square.

March 17. P. Fullen, Hanley, Stafford, bookseller. *Att.* Barber and Browne, Fetter lane.

J. Dennett, Northumberland street, Strand, wine merchant. *Att.* Palmer, Tonlinsons, and Thompson, Copthall court, Throgmorton street.

D. Morgan, otherwise Clifford, Cardiff, Glamorgan, shop keeper. *Att.* James, Gray's Inn square.

J. Kelly, Manchester, manufacturer. *Att.* Ellis, Cursitor street.

T. Jones, Birmingham, Warwick, coal merchant. *Att.* Panton, Hind court, Fleet street.

S. Blewer, now or late of Ellingham, Norfolk, miller. *Att.* Cufaude, Bungay, and Halesworth.

J. Hancock, Sheffield, York, merchant. *Att.* Chambre, Temple lane.

J. Linley, Sheffield, York, grocer. *Att.* Bigg, Hatton garden.

A. Devenish, and H. Newport, Villiers street, Strand, upholsterers. *Att.* Bleasdale, and Co. New inn.

T. Taylor, late of Monkwearmouth Shore, Durham, bread baker. *Att.* Blackiston, Symond's inn.

March 31. J. Freeman, late of the parish of St. Mary Magdalene, Bermondsey, Surrey, victualler.

W. Mortimer, Wivenhoe, Essex, maltster. *Att.* Lowte, Temple.

W. Smith, Wolverhampton, Stafford, butcher. *Att.* Corser, Wolverhampton.

W. Hancock, Sheffield, tallow chandler and grocer. *Att.* Chambre, Temple lane.

T. Susham, late of Creak, Norfolk, hawker and pedlar. *Att.* Falcon, Elm court, Temple.

R. Rawlinson, late of Kingston-upon-Hull, merchant. *Att.* Rosser and Son, Bartlett's Buildings, Holborn.

J. Watkins, F. McClure, and L. Hinckson, New Bond street, milliners. *Att.* Hogarth, Staple Inn.

March 34. W. Watts, Castle lane, Borough, leather dresser. *Att.* Aunesley, Hare court, Temple.

W. Bl oxam, New road, St. George's in the East, cooper. *Att.* Eatou and Hardy, Bircham lane.

L. Collins, A. Jones, and E. Kerney, New Bond street, milliners. *Att.* Berry and James, Walbrook.

C. and N. Husey, Newgate street, linen drapers. *Att.* Blandford and Sweet, King's Bench Walks, Temple.

J. and T. Neysham, Preston, Lancashire, cotton manufacturers. *Att.* Blakelock, Temple.

March 39. J. Shynn, Stratford, Essex, victualler. *Att.* Smith and Tilson, Chapter house, St. Paul's Church yard.

J. Rowe, Castle street, Falcon square, merchant. *Att.* Swain and Stevens, Old Jewry.

R. Humphry, jun. Honiton, Devonshire, butter factor. *Att.* Townsend and Pearce, Honiton.

G. Symons, Plymouth dock, mercer. *Att.* N. Davies, Lothbury.

J. Mitchell, Manningham, Yorkshire, worsted manufacturer. *Att.* Edge, King's bench walk, Inner Temple.

R. Sowley, Knowle, Warwickshire, corn factor. *Att.* Smart and Thomas, Staple's Inn.

S. T. West, Castor, Lincolnshire, scrivener. *Att.* J. Pearson, Holborn court, Gray's Inn.

March 31. R. Eccle, Chorley, Lancashire, cotton manufacturer. *Att.* Mine and Party, Old Jewry.

W. Hayter, Southmolton, Devon, vintner. *Att.* Devon and Tooke, Gray's Inn square.

G. Kipperhoome, Hailfax, Yorkshire, dealer. *Att.* Evans, Thavies Inn.

April 4. W. Reid and W. Webster, Manchester, millwrights. *Att.* Y. Redhead and Brother, Manchester.

J. Raisbeck, Leeds, dealer. *Att.* Lee, Leeds.

J. Clayton, Didsbury, Lancashire, tanner. *Att.* T. Ainsworth, Blackburn.

S. Turner, Manchester, innkeeper. *Att.* J. Law, Manchester.

T. Bychmore, Market street, Oxford market, victualler. *Att.* Holloway, Chancery lane.

W. Tucker, jun. Exeter, serge manufacturer. *Att.* Collins and Waller, Spital square.

N. Willmot, Wyrardsbury, Buckinghamshire, wheelwright. *Att.* J. Richardson, New Inn.

I. Baker, Dudley, Worcestershire, linen draper. *Att.* G. Burish, Birmingham.

J. Gray, East Smithfield, baker. *Att.* Noy, Mincing lane.

J. Green, jun. Blackburn, Lancashire, calico manufacturer. *Att.* J. Taylor, Manchester.

J. and T. Parkinson, Liverpool, curriers. *Att.* J. Dixon, Preston.

R. Cooke, Duckenfield, Cheshire, cotton spinner. *Att.* J. Taylor, Manchester.

J. Gibson, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, woollen draper. *Att.* Teasdale, Newcastle-upon-Tyne.

J. Wilson, Whitehorse street, Ratcliffe, dyer. *Att.* Oldham, No. 1, Nag's Head court, Gracchur church street.

B. Carr and T. Neale, York, flax dressers. *Att.* Townsend and O'field, York.

J. Bill, Hatherett, Norfolk, engineer. *Att.* Wilde, jun. Castle street, Falcon square.

April 7. R. Teasden, Trowbridge, Wilts, surgeon. *Att.* Williams, Red Lion square.

April 11. M. Da Costa, late of Sherborne lane, merchant. *Att.* Swain, Stephens, and Mapes, Old Jewry.

W. Thompson, of Manchester, grocer. *Att.* Milne and Parry.  
 W. B. Lambert, Manchester, grocer. *Att.* Ellis, Cursitor street.  
 April 14. R. Stracey, and J. Oliver, Cateaton-street, factors. *Att.* Blunt, Old Pay Office, Broad street.  
 T. Farenden, Chichester, Sussex, brazier. *Att.* Lake, Lincoln's Inn, New square.  
 J. Searth, Chorlton, Lancaster, cotton spinner. *Att.* Foulkes and Longdill, Gray's inn.  
 C. and E. Kenworthy, Staniland, Halifax, York, cotton spinner. *Att.* Jackson, Hanover court, Temple.  
 J. Grimsbury, the younger, of Preston, Lancaster, muslin manufacturer. *Att.* Wiglesworth, Gray's Inn square.  
 A. Sellon, Honiton, Devon, grocer. *Att.* Drew and Lexington, New Inn.  
 J. G. Thomas, Great Yarmouth, Norfolk, linen draper. *Att.* Swain, Stevens, and Maples, Old Jewry.  
 W. Booth, Holcombe Brook, Tottington, Lancaster, shop-keeper. *Att.* H. Blakelock, Elm court, Temple.  
 W. Burchen, Chapel street, Westminster, carpenter. *Att.* Theakston and Welchman, Blackfriars bridge.  
 M. W. Hagston, late of Charles street, City road, linen draper. *Att.* Hamman, Piazza chambers, Covent garden.  
 J. Anderson, Ball Greave Mill, Colne, Lancaster, cotton spinner. *Att.* Duckworth and Chippindall, Mascher.  
 J. Phillips, late of Monmouth, shopkeeper. *Att.* J. Williams, Red Lion square.  
 Z. Rowton, late of Northampton, factor. *Att.* Edmunds and Son, Exchequer Office of Pleas, Lincoln's Inn.  
 W. Finch, late of Westminster, dealer and Chapman. *Att.* Bone, Rold, and Davie, Plymouth Dock, Devon.  
 R. Barret, Manchester, victualler. *Att.* Ellis, Cursitor street.  
 T. Douglas, Gainsford street, Horsley Down, Surrey, corn dealer. *Att.* G. Pringle, Greville street, Hatton Garden.  
 C. Greengrass, Purleigh, Essex, baker. *Att.* Bigg, Hatton Garden.  
 J. Boggett, Bortherton, York, wheelwright. *Att.* R. Battye, Chancery lane.  
 April 15. J. Kershaw, Manchester, coal dealer. *Att.* Ellis, Cursitor street, Chancery lane.  
 J. Marshall, Denby, Yorkshire, tanner. *Att.* Wilson, Greenvile street, Hatton garden.  
 G. Leigh, Manchester, bread baker. *Att.* Ellis, Cursitor street.  
 T. Clifford, Birmingham, mealman. *Att.* Smart and Thomas, Staple's Inn.  
 J. Taylor, Pagham, Sussex, shopkeeper. *Att.* Hayward, Lamb's Conduit street.  
 J. Norman, Bristol, coal merchant. *Att.* Edmunds and Son, Lincoln's Inn.  
 G. Davies, Cranbourn street, Leicester fields, linen draper. *Att.* Dewberry, Conduit street, Hanover square.  
 H. Fraser, Nightingale lane, East Smithfield, grocer. *Att.* Tows, Upper Thames street.  
 W. Mason, Newton Butts, carpenter. *Att.* Smith, York buildings, Bermondsey, New road.  
 P. Desvignes, Rosomun street, Clerkenwell, watch case maker. *Att.* Cockayne and Taylor, Lion's Inn.  
 G. Olivantz, Manchester, merchant. *Att.* Ellis Cursitor street, Chancery lane.  
 R. Coombs, Lion's Inn, money scrivener. *Att.* Popkin, Dean street, Soho.  
 G. P. Davis and A. Mackie, Philpot lane, coffee merchants. *Att.* Beetham, Bouverie street, Fleet street.  
 C. Coie, Buckfastleigh, felt monger. *Att.* Williams and Brooks, Lincoln's Inn.  
 A. Bellingham, Bodmin, Cornwall, linen draper. *Att.* Bigg, Hatton Garden.  
 C. Grellett and S. Winter, Lawrence Pountney lane, merchants. *Att.* Cooke, Austin Friars.  
 April 21. J. Clark, Long lane, Bermondsey, hide salesman. *Att.* Morgan and Lamb, Sherborne lane, Lombard street.  
 T. Bale, Manchester, cotton manufacturer. *Att.* Edge, Inner Temple.  
 J. Peers, Liverpool, sadler. *Att.* Davies, Fenwick street, Liverpool.  
 M. Foster, Bell's Close, Northumberland, blue manufacturer. *Att.* Atkinson, Chancery lane.  
 T. Squire and T. Squire the younger, Stoke Damarell, Devonshire, tin plate workers. *Att.* Cleather, Plymouth.  
 N. Dearman, Findon Oaks, Yorkshire, linen manufacturer. *Att.* Rosser and Son, Barlett's buildings, Holborn.  
 R. Burge the younger, Edford, Somersetshire, stocking maker. *Att.* Bleasdale, Alexander, and Holme, New Inn, London.  
 R. Mason, Bermondsey street, Southwark, dyer. *Att.* Milne and Parry, Old Jewry.  
 P. Blatchford, Lifton, Devonshire, miller. *Att.* Anstice, King's Bench Walk, Temple.  
 W. Burnard, Old Bond street, coachmaker. *Att.* Richardson, Bury street, St. James's.

CERTIFICATES.

March 3. C. Chard, of Hugh Holborn, chemist and druggist. G. Richards, of Gough square, furrier. T. Ellis, of Whitechapel, auctioneer. J. Knowles, of Gwyndew, Anglesey, innkeeper. W. Robinson, of Manchester, cotton spinner.  
 March 7. T. Blore, Caldon Mills, Stafford, corn factor.  
 R. Barlow the younger, Sheepcote, Leicester, hosier.  
 J. Edmundson, late of Carlisle, Cumberland, dyer. E. Morgan, Noble street, warehouseman. M. Gillies, Southampton place, New road, merchant. P. Dubbeledeau, Van Dyck, late of the Circus, Minories, merchant.  
 March 10. J. Crundall, Clapham road, Surrey, carpenter.  
 J. Beswick, Stockport, Chester, grocer. J. Carbars, Vane street, Westminster, warehouseman. R. W. Schneider, White lion court, Bircham lane, merchant. W. Knight, Stonebreakers, York, clothier. T. Barlow, Manchester, merchant. J. Simpson, Fairford, Gloucester, carrier.  
 March 15. W. Hayward, New Sarum, Wilts, apothecary. N. Jefferys, Pall Mall, jeweller. E. Bryce the younger, Liverpool, merchant. J. C. Clarke, College hill, merchant. W. Hingston, Princes street, Rotherhithe, master mariner. W. Wright, Borough High street, Southwark, plumber. J. Harris, Old Jewry, watch-maker. J. G. Synder, Dyer's court, Aldermanbury, insurance broker.  
 March 17. S. M. Fisher, Gravesend, Kent, linen draper. T. Jones, High street, St. Mary-la-Bonne, carpenter. W. Benson, Twickenham, Middlesex, maltster. J. R. Wilkinson, Three Oak lane, Horsley Down, Surrey, cooper. W. Butt, Page's Walk, Bermondsey, Surrey, hair merchant. T. Shepley, Selby, York, brewer. E. Carritt, Louth, Lincoln, saddler. S. Hensley, Liverpool, merchant. T. and M. Robinson, Kirkby Stephen, Westmoreland, tq*q* or merchants.  
 March 21. S. Hambridge, Fetter lane, clothier and cloth factor. H. Godes, Canterbury, grazier. J. Stride, Emsworth, Southampton, grcer. T. Edwards, Duck's foot lane, Upper Thames street, cotton manufacturer. H. Lee, Holwell street, Shorelditch, silversmith. D. Hollaway, Aylebury, Bucks, innholder.  
 April 14. T. Johnson, High street, St. Mary-le-Bone, merchant. J. Woof, Ryder's court, Sono, glover. J. Woodburne, Lancaster, druggist. J. Yates, Clackheaton, Yorkshire, shopkeeper. J. Senior, Broad court, Drury lane, money shopkeeper. G. Edmonds, Chancery lane, law stationer. T. Cook, Gloucester, merchant.  
 April 18. J. Mair, Fenchurch buildings, insurance broker. J. King, Yarmouth, Isle of Wight, miller. M. Medford, New City Chambers, broker.  
 May 2. W. Handley, Beverley, York, currier. J. Collard the younger, Canterbury, hop dealer. R. Wilberfoss and J. Taylor, Minories, linen drapers. R. Cundall the younger, York, common brewer. T. Newton, Manchester, cotton manufacturer. J. Holliday, North Audley street, carpenter. A. M. Pereira, Old Bethlem, merchant.  
 May 5. G. Life, High Hartwgate, York, innkeeper. B. Sykes, Liverpool, Lancaster, dealer and Chapman. J. Fronings, Horsmonden, Kent, victualler. J. Benson, Greville street, Hatton garden, painter and glazier. J. Warren, Bishopsgate street, (but now of the Crescent, near the Minories), merchant, ship and insurance broker.  
 May 9. T. Wilkins the younger, St. Albans, horse dealer. W. Danney, Windsor, apothecary. W. Edge, Saffron, Lancashire, brewer. W. Gilbert, Chiswell street, grocer. R. Knock, Oxford street, taylor. T. White, Broad stairs, Isle of Thanet, Kent, ship-builder. N. Weden, Whitechapel road, brush maker. W. Marsh and E. Birch, Fleet street, London, paper stainers. J. McCracken Bushell, East street, Red Lion square, tea dealer. J. Whitley, Plymouth, merchant.  
 May 12. J. Perceval, New London street, merchant. J. Brown, Liverpool, draper. W. Louise, Liverpool, stone mason. J. Lee, York, woollen draper. W. Hambridge, Strand, Gloucestershire, clothier. G. Pritchard, St. Paul's church yard, chianaman. R. Heslop, Chiswell street, painter. G. Hawkes, Longfleet, Dorsetshire, tanner. S. Fletcher, Great Russell street, Bloomsbury, chianaman. W. Young, Manchester, victualler. T. P. King, West Cowes, Isle of Wight, linen draper.

## STATE OF THE ROYAL NAVY.

In commission, of the line, 145. 50 to 44 guns, 20, Frigates, 160. Sloops, 267. Gun brigs, 233. Total 771.  
 In ordinary, of the line, 39. 50 to 44 guns, 16, Frigates, 51. Sloops, 51. Gun brigs, 6. Total 163.  
 Building of the line, 34. Frigates, 29. Sloops, 34. Gun brigs, 3. Total 60.

## POLITICAL PERISCOPE.

INCLUDING THE STATE OF TRADE, &c.  
*Panorama Office, April 24.*

That time of the month at which we must complete our number at the press, precludes us from taking advantage of those sources of information which arrive towards the end of the month from foreign parts. We are, therefore, at present, under the necessity of confessing a state of suspense rather than of certainty, and of expectation rather than of knowledge. That the latter days of April have been productive of great events on the Continent, is generally believed, and with every appearance of probability, but only rumour has yet reached us, and that extremely vague and uncertain.

The eyes of the considerate are fixed on the situation of the contending armies in Poland, where a battle is expected to take place, in which not less than 400,000 of the human race will be engaged; and which, from so great a number of combatants, from the length of time it may continue, from the character of the Generals, and from the distressing results, against which neither party can adequately provide, may be expected to present a dreadful instance of the miseries brought on mankind by the fury of insatiate ambition. We should not be surprised if the battle were to rage for several days, and if each army were in some places victor, in other places vanquished.

That Bonaparte has been assembling troops with every diligence, and from all quarters, we can readily believe: he has withdrawn his army from the siege of Stralsund, the capture of that place being a very inferior consideration. The Swedes, getting advice of this intention, have followed the withdrawing army, have taken the military chest, value about £80,000, and have made prisoners about 2000 troops, mostly Dutch. That these troops, though enrolled by the French, should be far from hearty in behalf of the Emperor and King, cannot excite a wonder. They have been torn from their families by order of their nominal King, whom they little value, to fight for an Usurper whom they do not esteem. That the Dutch would willingly annihilate the whole swarm of Frenchmen which now pesters their cities, their offices, their custom-houses, &c. is a fact as little disputable, as that they once repelled with heroic bravery the armies of that power by which they are now enslaved. We have, indeed, been told, by very good authority, that the Dutch troops willingly abandon their French engagements, and surrender themselves to the Swedes; they are very far, indeed, from being beaten into submission.—We scarcely know how to credit a report, that

104 Dutchmen surrendered themselves to three or four Swedes: but we have heard it accounted for on the principle now stated, to which, no doubt, may be added their dislike of a course of life and accommodations wholly different from that of their former days.

The Swedish troops are divided into two columns; one follows the main body of the retreating French, toward the forests and marshes of Poland; the other bears down towards Hamburg; and report affirms, that the French force in this city is withdrawn, or withdrawing; but whether to join the grand army, we should doubt. It is, at least, certain, that the French commander in Hamburg has offered to commute the value of the British goods he had seized in that city into money, and after demanding 10,000,000 of florins, had lowered his terms to 4,000,000. That he will carry with him all he can obtain, is not doubted, but what he may be able to obtain depends, in part, on the rapidity of his enemies' movements. It is understood that the troops he has under his command are not prime troops; and this inclines us to suspect that his destination is not to join the grand army. Whether it is wise in the Swedes to divide their force, time will shew; but the policy appears somewhat doubtful, at least, unless there be a reinforcement ready to succour that body which follows the French, who report their force to be 20 or 24,000 men, while that of the Swedes is not more than half so much. This relief of Hamburg has excited the attention of the British merchants, who either have received, or are momentarily expecting to receive, considerable orders. *If this intelligence be true,* the market for West India commodities will no doubt, feel great benefit, and whatever has been used to find its way into the Continent through this opening, will be sought for with avidity, after an interval marked with suffering to the seller, and distress to the buyer.

That Bonaparte should find his army diminished in numbers, and, from the nature of their sufferings, in spirits and zeal, also, is a very natural conclusion, from what we know of the state and character of the country it occupies. But, if this were doubtful, the fact of his having called out the conscription for 1808, before the first quarter of 1807 was expired, fully justifies the inference. This conscription also is executed near Paris in uncommon haste, and with uncommon rigour. The *Moniteur* has held out, *in terrorum*, the punishments inflicted on some who had attempted to secrete a conscript, and on others who had corroded a young conscript's legs with a caustic liquid, to render him unfit for present service: but, if the conscripts had been universally animated with the spirit of willingness, where were the need for this evasion, and this suffering?

Among the wonders of the day, none is more remarkable, than that of a Spanish force of 24,000 foot and 6000 horse moving to the assistance of their French allies. What is the ultimate destination of this body of troops, we can hardly divine: some reports send them to Italy; others to Berlin. If to Italy, for what purpose?—are they for Dalmatia? If for Berlin, then is Bonaparte's army more reduced than has been thought. Spaniards fighting the Russians on their own ground! what a spectacle!

We have, in another part of our work, given proofs of the activity and steady determination of the Russian Emperor. That Bonaparte has tempted him with proposals of peace, we have no doubt; it is the character of that chief to attempt by negotiation what he cannot accomplish by force. That he wishes for an interval of suspended hostilities, we believe; but that it would serve his purpose of further warfare, rather than the promotion of substantial pacification, no observant mind can hesitate in admitting. In the mean while, Holland is in a state of gloom: the King has consoled with his people on their losses, and their almost stagnant commerce: if to this should be added a spirit of defection in the army, his crown, not at present very easy, will then become tottering and insecure. We are not able correctly to ascertain the state of the public mind in Holland, as it exists in the bosom of individuals. The public mask is one thing, the private sentiment is another. Whether those who have accepted the trappings of legionary decorations are subjects of envy or of derision to their countrymen, whether the respectability of those who have *applied* for the honours of Bonaparte, is fully proof, and who they are, if any, or whether those who have been *invited* to wear them, and therefore dare not refuse, are the only persons on whom they have been bestowed. We are not able at present to elucidate these inquiries.

As to France itself, we do not perceive but what it does as well without Bonaparte as with him; and if he were to stay where he is all the days of life, there are those, we may safely say, who would never regret his absence. The present conscription is felt as a most grievous hardship.—In some places, La Vendee especially, it is not yet enforced.

From Italy we have little authentic news.

Turkey has lately attracted much notice.—No people on the face of the earth are so clever as the French at vamping up an old garment, turning it, dyeing it, fine-drawing it, brushing it, and, above all, praising it. We have repeatedly admired their skill in this respect; and they have lately had an opportunity of exercising it on Turkey. With an assurance not over modest, they have assured

the world, that the Turks had laid down their long pipes, and taken up their sharp swords; that they had risen from their hauns, and had mounted on the old walls of their capital 500 pieces of cannon! that they had assembled in Constantinople itself, alone, 100,000 men, well arranged, and well accoutred; had manned fifteen sail of the line with Janissaries, in lieu of seamen; and that, at the voice of a single Frenchman, the whole town had run so violently towards the sea to defend their port, that it was well for them they had *triple* walls in that part, as two enclosures were not enough to restrain their speed!—and all this, with much more, in less than four-and-twenty hours! We have not, then, read Baron du Tott—nor M. Le Chevalier—nor Dr. Wittman—nor the journals of the British officers in Turkey and Egypt:—we have not read Pouqueville—nor—No; but, Sebastiani, who travelled post all around the Levant formerly has travelled postall around Constantinople lately; and having published his travels and observations on that occasion, for the edification of politicians, he has on this occasion published again for the amusement of no-politicians. The fact appears to be, that a division of the British fleet passed the Dardanelles *upwards*, February 19, and appeared before Constantinople; what its purposes were we know not; neither do we know whether it effected them; but it should seem, that it returned to the rest of the squadron March 3, and passed the Dardanelles *downwards* before the batteries could be got ready to dispute its passage; for the French themselves acknowledge, that those on the European side did not fire a shot!

As to the state of Britain, our readers will have obtained a better idea of it from our Parliamentary History, than we are able to offer from other sources. We believe that not much of future measures is known; the finances will most probably be *partly* conducted on the plan of the late ministry; and partly on the plan of raising *some* taxes annually. The security for the present loan, does not include the Property Tax. The Catholics we hope will continue quiet; it is their obvious policy. We fear that something like a spirit of disaffection is latent in India; great prudence will be our best ally in that part of the world.

*Concurrent intelligence, from the most authentic sources of information, leaves no doubt on our minds that Parliament will be DISSOLVED VERY SHORTLY.*

As to our trade, it has hitherto been rather in a waiting state; the treaty of commerce with Russia is almost expired, but it is not succeeded by another; measures are now taking for that purpose. In the mean while, the British merchants in that country are uneasy. The British capital always employed in for-

warding the manufactures of Russia, amounts to many millions of money.

The treaty with America is said to be returned unratified, to the great joy of *some* among us. As the reasons on which it is founded have not been divulged; we can neither approve nor disapprove its contents. Our fleets sent to the West Indies have arrived uncommonly well; our Islands had not been attacked by the enemy, when last heard from; and we may hope that the supplies they have now received will place them in perfect safety.

It is usually understood that the trade to Holland encounters less rigour than before. The Dutch merchants cannot pay their taxes without money, and money they can procure only by trade. If the relief of Hamburgh, should prove true, trade will quickly feel it.

The public funds are heavy; and the premium at which the last Loan may be bought, is in fact no premium. The unsettled state of the ministry, rumours of a determination to dissolve Parliament (though *when* is not even hinted at) the uncertainty of future measures of finance, all contribute to this effect. In the mean while the Bank prospers. Increased dividends witness this; a readiness to make good the several payments of the loan (the last excepted, as usual) on pledging the securities, with a professed ability to pay in gold, whenever thought proper, are no slight indications of accumulated wealth. And in short, though every thing is not exactly as we would have it, yet we may safely report that most things are well enough, to enable Britannia to maintain her just rank among the nations, in spite of all endeavours of her enemy to the contrary.

Sundry addresses relative to the late change of ministry, have been presented to his Majesty: We select that from the metropolis.

#### TO THE KING'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY.

The humble and dutiful Address of the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Commoners of the City of London, in Common Council, &c.

" Most Gracious Sovereign,

" We, your Majesty's most dutiful and loyal subjects, the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Commoners of the city of London, in common council assembled, approach the throne with our warmest and most unfeigned gratitude, for the dignified and decided support and protection recently given by your Majesty to the Protestant Reformed religion, as by law established; and for the firm and constitutional exercise of your royal prerogative, to preserve the independence of the crown.

" Deeply sensible as your Majesty's faithful citizens of London at all times are, of the great and substantial blessings we enjoy, under your Majesty's paternal government, we should justly incur the imputation of criminal

indifference, as the first municipal body in your Majesty's dominions, were we lightly to consider the scrupulous regard and fervent zeal which have invariably guided your Majesty for the preservation of our religion, laws, and liberties, more particularly at this interesting conjuncture; or silently to withhold our loyal acknowledgments, due to the best of Kings, for his wise and steady resolution to secure, inviolate, our glorious constitution in church and state.

" We contemplate, Sire, with the warmest affection and most profound veneration, the exercise of those unextinguishable principles in the royal breast, which protect, in every situation, the religious interests of your people, and provide for the happiness and freedom of posterity, by guarding the Protestant succession in your Majesty's royal house, on the throne of the United Kingdom.

" Your Majesty's faithful citizens of London feel it no less their pride and exultation, than their bounden and indispensable duty, to express the sentiments of satisfaction which animate their hearts, at the wise and dignified measures pursued by your Majesty, securing the glorious independence of the crown, as one of the three estates of our well-tempered and allowed constitution.

" That your Majesty may be long spared to us by an over-ruling Providence, and that the people of this land may be long sensible of the blessings of your Majesty's most auspicious government in the protection of every thing dear to them, is the ardent prayer of your Majesty's loyal citizens of London.

" Signed by order of Court,  
" HENRY WOODTHORPE."

To which Address his Majesty was pleased to return the following most gracious answer:

" I receive, with the greatest satisfaction, the assurances you give me of your concurrence in those principles which have governed my conduct on the late important occasion. It has ever been my object to secure to all descriptions of my subjects the benefits of religious toleration; and it affords me particular gratification to reflect, that, during my reign, these advantages have been more generally and extensively enjoyed, than at any former period; but, at the same time, I never can forget what is due to the security of the ecclesiastical establishment of my dominions, connected as it is with our civil Constitution, and with all those blessings which, by the favour of Providence, have hitherto so eminently distinguished us amongst the nations of the world."

*April 27.—Although part of our impression is worked off, we stop the press to announce, that Parliament may be considered as DISSOLVED this day, agreeably to the tenor of our intelligence, as already noticed.*

## PRICE OF MEAT.\*

|                                                  |                                           |
|--------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|
| Smithfield, per stone of 8lb. to sink the offal. |                                           |
| Beef. Mutton. Veal. Pork. Lamb.                  |                                           |
| Mar. 27 5s. 0d. 5s. 4d. 6s. 4d. 5s. 8d. 7s. 6d.  |                                           |
| Apr. 3 5 8 6 0 6 4 6 0 8 4                       |                                           |
| 10 5 4 5 6 6 0 5 8 8 0                           |                                           |
| 17 5 0 5 8 6 0 5 4 7 0                           |                                           |
| Newgate and Leadenhall, by the carcase.          |                                           |
| Mar. 27 4 4 4 8 6 0 5 8 0 0                      |                                           |
| Apr. 3 4 8 4 10 5 10 6 0 7 4                     |                                           |
| 10 4 4 4 8 5 0 5 8 7 4                           |                                           |
| 17 4 4 4 8 5 6 5 4 6 8                           |                                           |
| St. James'. <sup>*</sup><br>Hay. straw.          | Whitechapel'. <sup>*</sup><br>Hay. straw. |
| Mar. 27 £5 10 0 £3 15 0 £5 8 0 £3 6 0            |                                           |
| Apr. 3 5 5 0 3 9 0 5 5 0 3 6 0                   |                                           |
| 10 5 5 0 3 9 0 5 8 0 3 3 0                       |                                           |
| 17 5 10 0 3 12 0 5 18 0 3 8 0                    |                                           |

## PRICE OF HOPS.

|                   |                    |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| Bags.             | Pockets.           |
| Kent £5 0 to £6 0 | Kent £5 5 to £6 16 |
| Sussex 4 16 5 10  | Sussex 5 0 5 18    |
| Essex 4 16 5 10   | Farn. 8 0 9 9      |

## PRICE OF LEATHER.\*

|                                            |             |
|--------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Butts, 50 to 56lb. each                    | — — — — 23d |
| Dressing Hides                             | — — — — 19  |
| Crop Hides for cutting                     | — — — — 22  |
| Flat Ordinary                              | — — — —     |
| Calf Skins, 30 to 40lb. per dozen, per lb. | 42          |
| Ditto 50 to 70                             | — — — — 42  |

TALLOW.\* London average per stone of 8lb. 3s. 4d.

Soap, yellow, 78s.; mottled, 88s.; curd, 92s.  
Candles, per dozen, 10s. 6d.; moulds, 11s. 6d.

## COALS IN THE RIVER.

|                                         |                      |
|-----------------------------------------|----------------------|
| Sunderland.                             | Newcastle.           |
| Mar. 23 46s. 3d. to 48s. 9d.            | 40s. 0d. to 51s. 0d. |
| 30 45 6 46 6 43 0 51 0                  |                      |
| Apr. 6 44 6 45 9 44 3 52 0              |                      |
| 13 42 6 46 0 44 3 50 6                  |                      |
| 20 44 0 44 3 44 0 50 0                  |                      |
| Delivered at 12s. per chaldron advance. |                      |

## PRICE OF BREAD.

|                 |            |           |
|-----------------|------------|-----------|
| Peck Loaf.      | Half Peck. | Quartern. |
| Mar. 26 4s. 2d. | 2s. 1d.    | 1s. 0½d.  |
| Apr. 2 4 2 2 1  | 1 0½       |           |
| 9 4 2 2 1       | 1 0½       |           |
| 16 4 1 2 0½     | 1 0½       |           |
| 23 3 11 1 11½   | 0 11½      |           |

Those marked thus \*, are taken at the highest  
Price of the market.

## COURSE OF EXCHANGE.

|                  | March 26.       | April 10.       | April 17.       |
|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Amsterdam        | 36-9-2 u.       | 36-8-2 u.       | 36-8-2 u.       |
| Ditto at sight   | 36              | 36              | 36              |
| Rotterdam, c. f. | 11-10-2 u.      | 11-9-2 u.       | 11-9-2 u.       |
| Hamburg          | 34-10-2½ u.     | 34-10-2½ u.     | 34-10-2½ u.     |
| Altona           | 34-11-2½ u.     | 34-11-2½ u.     | 34-11-2½ u.     |
| Paris            | — 24 10 liv.    | 24-10 liv.      | 24-10 liv.      |
| Ditto 2 us.      | 24-14           | 24-14           | 24-14           |
| Bordeaux         | 24-14           | 24-14           | 24-14           |
| Cadiz            | 39½ effect.     | 38½ effect.     | 38½ effect      |
| Madrid           | 39½ effect.     | 38½ effect.     | 38½ effect      |
| Bilbao           | 38½             | 38              | 38½             |
| Leghorn          | 49½             | 49½             | 49½             |
| Naples           | 42              | 42              | 40              |
| Genoa            | 45 liv. pic.    | 45 liv. pic.    | 45 liv. pic.    |
| Venice, n. C.    | 52 ditto ineff. | 52 ditto ineff. | 52 ditto ineff. |
| Lisbon           | 63              | 63              | 64              |
| Oporto           | 63              | 63              | 64              |
| Dublin           | 10½             | 10½             | 10½             |
| Cork             | 12              | 12              | 12              |

## LONDON WEEKLY RETURNS OF WHEAT.

|         |      |           |         |           |
|---------|------|-----------|---------|-----------|
| Mar. 14 | 5732 | quarters. | Average | 76s. 6½d. |
| 21      | 3538 | —         | —       | 76-10½    |
| 28      | 4933 | —         | —       | 76 10½    |
| Apr. 4  | 5895 | —         | —       | 75 11½    |
| 11      | 4807 | —         | —       | 75 5      |

## FLOUR.

|         |        |        |         |           |
|---------|--------|--------|---------|-----------|
| Mar. 20 | 11,851 | sacks. | Average | 69s. 4½d. |
| 27      | 11,521 | —      | —       | 69 6½     |
| Apr. 3  | 12,056 | —      | —       | 69 2      |
| 10      | 10,407 | —      | —       | 67 4      |
| 17      | 13,164 | —      | —       | 64 7½     |

## METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

| Mar. | 11 o'clock | Night. | 12 o'clock | Baron. | Height  | Dryness           | by Leslie's |
|------|------------|--------|------------|--------|---------|-------------------|-------------|
|      |            |        | 1 o'clock  | Baron. | Inches. |                   |             |
| 21   | 40         | 54     | 41         | 30,21  | 26      | Cloudy            |             |
| 22   | 44         | 50     | 38         | ,42    | 28      | Fair              |             |
| 23   | 37         | 44     | 36         | ,48    | 33      | Fair              |             |
| 24   | 32         | 43     | 35         | ,40    | 37      | Fair              |             |
| 25   | 33         | 42     | 37         | ,39    | 20      | Cloudy            |             |
| 26   | 30         | 40     | 37         | ,10    | 12      | Cloudy            |             |
| 27   | 36         | 43     | 39         | 29,82  | 7       | Cloudy            |             |
| 28   | 38         | 43     | 38         | ,72    | 6       | Cloudy            |             |
| 29   | 39         | 43     | 34         | ,75    | 10      | Cloudy            |             |
| 30   | 36         | 40     | 36         | ,77    | 15      | Cloudy            |             |
| 31   | 35         | 44     | 35         | ,52    | 5       | Gld. with snow    |             |
| Apr. |            |        |            |        |         |                   |             |
| 1    | 35         | 41     | 36         | ,57    | 0       | Cloudy with snow  |             |
| 2    | 32         | 33     | 33         | ,75    | 0       | Gt. fall. of snow |             |
| 3    | 30         | 41     | 32         | ,84    | 30      | Fair              |             |
| 4    | 28         | 42     | 34         | 30,10  | 25      | Fair              |             |
| 5    | 37         | 46     | 35         | ,16    | 36      | Fair              |             |
| 6    | 36         | 53     | 35         | ,07    | 51      | Fair              |             |
| 7    | 36         | 55     | 46         | ,06    | 47      | Fair              |             |
| 8    | 46         | 58     | 44         | ,24    | 45      | Cloudy            |             |
| 9    | 44         | 63     | 46         | ,24    | 55      | Cloudy            |             |
| 10   | 46         | 53     | 49         | 29,92  | 22      | Small Rain        |             |
| 11   | 49         | 56     | 50         | ,56    | 41      | Fair              |             |
| 12   | 52         | 60     | 46         | ,40    | 48      | Fair              |             |
| 13   | 46         | 55     | 41         | ,30    | 10      | Showery           |             |
| 14   | 40         | 56     | 40         | ,35    | 30      | Fair              |             |
| 15   | 40         | 41     | 40         | ,36    | 0       | Showery           |             |
| 16   | 40         | 40     | 32         | ,62    | 10      | Cloudy            |             |
| 17   | 32         | 32     | 31         | ,78    | 0       | Gt. fall. of snow |             |
| 18   | 32         | 43     | 30         | ,82    | 21      | Fair              |             |
| 19   | 32         | 42     | 31         | ,95    | 24      | Fair              |             |
| 20   | 32         | 41     | 32         | 30,16  | 16      | Cloudy            |             |

## PRICES OF BULLION.

| Portugal gold in                   | Per oz. £s. d. |
|------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
|                                    |                |                |                |                |                |
| coin and bars                      | 4              | 0              | 0              | 4              | 0              |
| Doubloons                          | —              | 0              | 5              | 6½             | 0              |
| New dollars                        | —              | 0              | 5              | 8              | 0              |
| Silver in bars                     | —              | 0              | 5              | 8              | 0              |
| New Louis, each                    | —              | —              | —              | —              | —              |
| Asio on Bank of Holland, 54 p. cr. | —              | —              | —              | —              | —              |

Daily Prices of STOCKS, 21st MARCH to 21st APRIL, 1807.

ERRATUM.—Vol. II. p. 145, line 5, for Epitaph, *read* Epigram